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ABSTRACT

A guide for teachers, counselors, and administrators of Manitoba high school programs enrolling limited-English-proficient (LEP) students is designed to provide background information and resources for helping these students develop English language skills for success in school and beyond while receiving a sound basic education in a full range of subjects. Guidelines for the reception, orientation, placement, integration, and follow-up of immigrant and Canadian native students in the school are outlined. Recommended course outlines for the English language component of LEP student programs are presented, including two levels of English as a second language, a transitional course, a functional literacy program, and special needs programming. A section on accommodating diverse cultural backgrounds suggests teacher and staff behaviors to support student needs. A language development approach to instructing LEP students in any subject is described, suggesting classroom techniques for enhancing the learning experience. Recommendations are made for developing each of the four language skill areas: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The concept of language across the curriculum is discussed, and sample literature, science, mathematics, and social studies lessons are provided. A chapter on student assessment is also included, and an appendix contains support materials. (MSE)

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Curriculum Support Series

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT HANDBOOK FOR SECONDARY STUDENTS WITH LIMITED PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years, secondary school educators have become increasingly aware of the many capable students who are unable to succeed in school because their command of English is limited. These students may be second language speakers, whose exposure to English outside of school is limited: new Canadians, the children of new Canadians, or Native people. They may also be students who regularly use a dialect of English that differs greatly from standard English, or students whose language experiences, both in and out of school, have not adequately prepared them for secondary education.

The purpose of this Handbook is to provide secondary school educators with background information and resources for helping students of limited proficiency in English (LPE) to develop English language skills for success in school and beyond, while at the same time receiving a sound basic education in a full range of subject areas.

Intended Users

The responsibility for language development rests with all educators in the secondary school. The information in this handbook is intended for:

CLASSROOM TEACHERS	--	who teach students of limited proficiency in English
RESOURCE TEACHERS	--	who organize and provide assistance for students whose proficiency in English is limited
ESL TEACHERS	--	who are responsible for the language development of students who speak English as a second language
COUNSELLORS	--	who share responsibility for the reception and placement of students of limited proficiency in English and assist them with their academic and career choices
ADMINISTRATORS	--	who are responsible for the implementation and support of programs for students of limited proficiency in English
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT STAFF	--	who provide pre-service and in-service programs for teachers in all subject areas.

Student Population

The students whose needs are addressed in this handbook are at various stages of language development.

← Level One	Level Two	Level Three →
Little or no English	English proficiency not commensurate with age or potential for achievement	Proficiency in English

LEVEL ONE students have little or no facility in standard English and are unable to function in a regular classroom situation.

Students at LEVELS TWO and THREE are those who, for many reasons, have not yet attained a level of language proficiency commensurate with their age or potential for achievement. Some students function well in English in informal situations, but are still unfamiliar with the more formal language of the school; others are able to succeed in certain academic disciplines, but have not yet acquired language needed for informal situations both in and out of school.

LEVEL TWO students are unable to succeed in a regular program of studies without substantial assistance, either in the form of tutoring or modifications to the regular program.

LEVEL THREE students are able to function in English in a regular program with limited assistance, but have not yet attained a level of achievement commensurate with age or potential.

Beyond LEVEL THREE, students are functioning at a level of English which allows them full participation in the academic and social life of the school at an appropriate grade level.

Students with limited proficiency in English enter the secondary school at different levels of language competence and progress at different rates through the stages of language development. Progress in language development depends to a large extent on the school's response to the language needs of its population. Schools must provide programs which will help students to develop language skills for academic and social purposes as quickly as individual capability will allow.

GOALS AND AIMS

Goals

Public schools in Manitoba should provide all students with "those experiences which encourage them to develop to their fullest potential - mentally, physically, morally, emotionally, and socially."[1] The broad goals of public education in Manitoba emphasize the development of personal, social and cultural awareness as well as skills in critical thinking, decision making, communication, mathematics, sciences, and the arts.

To achieve these goals, students must experience personal and academic success. They must work in learning environments in which they feel comfortable and accepted, and which provide opportunities for interaction with others of different social and cultural backgrounds. They must also be proficient in the language of instruction of the school and familiar with the culture it reflects. Students of limited proficiency in English must, therefore, be given special assistance in the areas of language development and cultural adaptation.

STUDENTS OF LIMITED PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH NEED OPPORTUNITIES:

- TO ACQUIRE COMPETENCE IN THE USE OF ORAL AND WRITTEN ENGLISH FOR SUCCESS IN SCHOOL AND BEYOND
- TO DEVELOP AND MAINTAIN A POSITIVE SELF-IMAGE AND SENSE OF SELF-WORTH
- TO USE THEIR OWN LANGUAGES/DIALECTS AND TO CONTINUE TO DEVELOP AN APPRECIATION OF THEIR OWN CULTURES AND THOSE OF OTHERS.

Aims

STUDENTS MUST HAVE POSITIVE LEARNING EXPERIENCES IN ALL AREAS OF THE CURRICULUM SSO THAT THINKING AND LANGUAGE SKILLS CAN BE DEVELOPED.

Students must be provided with opportunities in all subject areas to:

a) listen with understanding to concepts and ideas at an appropriate level.

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[1] Province of Manitoba, Department of Education, Administrative Handbook, 1983 2.02

b) practise the mechanical skills which lead to the development of proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading and writing English.

c) express ideas and feelings orally.

d) decode, comprehend, interpret and appreciate written material at an appropriate level.

e) write clearly and correctly at an appropriate level.

f) use language to develop and reflect intellectual skills, such as, observing, classifying, evaluating.

g) practise the informal language of social interactions.

FOR SUCCESSFUL LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT TO TAKE PLACE, STUDENTS MUST HAVE A POSITIVE SELF-IMAGE AND A SENSE OF SELF-WORTH.

These may be developed by providing students with opportunities to:

a) work in emotionally secure learning environments.

b) work at levels of competence where success can be achieved.

c) develop habits which contribute to independent problem solving.

d) develop positive ways of dealing with peer groups and adults.

e) participate in all aspects of school life.

IN ORDER TO FUNCTION SUCCESSFULLY IN THE MAINSTREAM OF THE SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, STUDENTS MUST HAVE OPPORTUNITIES TO USE THEIR OWN LANGUAGES/DIALECTS AND TO CONTINUE TO DEVELOP AN APPRECIATION OF THEIR OWN CULTURES AND THOSE OF OTHERS.

Students should be encouraged to:

a) maintain and/or learn heritage languages.

b) develop and retain a personal identity through an awareness of their own cultural and historical heritages.

c) adjust to methods of instruction, discipline and school organization which may differ from previous school experiences.

d) become familiar with the immediate community.

e) become familiar with and feel comfortable in social situations in and out of school.

f) become knowledgeable of the customs, holidays, institutions, geography, and history of Canada.

g) recognize and understand the many forms that culture takes: language, customs, traditions, religion.

h) develop a respect for the linguistic, cultural and historical heritages of others.

GUIDELINES FOR THE RECEPTION, PLACEMENT, AND FOLLOW-UP OF STUDENTS OF LIMITED PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH

The following information is provided to schools receiving immigrant and Native students to help them formalize procedures and responsibilities for the reception, orientation, placement and integration of these students into the school system. Schools receiving large numbers of immigrant and Native students should identify staff responsible for co-ordinating and carrying out these procedures.

RECEPTION

Reception of Immigrant Students

A warm reception for immigrant students and their families by school staff is a vital first step in helping newcomers to Canada and Manitoba adjust to their new community. Time spent in getting to know the culture and background of the family, explaining the Canadian school system, and familiarizing them with the school and community will contribute to their successful adjustment to the new school and initiate open and positive communication with the home. Schools registering large numbers of immigrant students may wish to designate a staff member (counsellor, ESL teacher, resource teacher) to be responsible for the reception, initial placement and follow-up of immigrant students.

If the student and the family do not speak English, the language of the home should be used for all communication with the home. If a new family does not bring an interpreter to the initial interview, the school should make provision for one to be present. An interpreter/translator list should be compiled and maintained for use in home-school communication and in case of emergency. Schools are encouraged to use the bilingual skills of their staff, students and community. Appendix A.1 lists additional contacts for help in setting up a list of translators and interpreters.

At the initial interview, information about the student can be compiled, and an informal assessment of the student's English language proficiency made. Arrangements for further language/academic testing can be made at this time.

The initial interview should deal with:

Basic Information

An oral interview (See Appendix A.2) designed to elicit information about the student, the family, previous education and future aspirations can be used to determine the level of a student's oral language skills, and help in completing student record cards.

Immigration Status

When registering "out of country" students for the first time, the school should check the student's status in Canada by asking for immigration documents and checking them. If further assistance is required, the local immigration office should be contacted.

- Students with **landed immigrant status** who are living with parents, guardians, relatives or friends are classed as "resident pupils", and come within the provisions of the Public Schools Act.

- Students who are here on a **student visa** are "non-resident pupils", but may attend the public school provided they meet school entry requirements and pay the fees assessed by the division. Their status with the division should be determined before they are enrolled in the school.

- Persons on a **visitor visa** have no formal right to attend public schools.

Medical Coverage

The Manitoba Health Services Commission does not provide health care coverage to visa students and to unaccompanied minors from abroad who are attending public schools in Manitoba. These students should be encouraged to apply for private medical coverage.

Students and their families should be informed about the regular program of studies in the secondary school, as well as the special programs intended to help them to improve their English and successfully adapt to the regular programs. They should be given a tour of the school and its facilities and introduced to other students of the same background and to school personnel. Explanations of school hours, attendance policy, lunch arrangements, extra curricular activities and other aspects of school routine should also be given.

Money may be a problem for some students, and they should be made aware of sources of loans, bursaries, and scholarships available to them. All resident students in Manitoba are eligible for Provincial Government Bursaries by making application to the Student Aid Branch, 693 Taylor Avenue, Winnipeg, MB R3M 2K2. Further information may be found in Appendix C.

Immigrant students and their parents are likely to have many questions about various aspects of Canadian school life and Canadian life in general. An honest attempt should be made to answer as many of these questions as possible, in some cases directing the family to other community agencies for specialized assistance. In schools where counsellors are not aware of social services available to immigrants, the International Centre in Winnipeg, (204) 772-0346, may provide the necessary information.

Reception of Native Students

Many Native students are permanent residents of urban school divisions. Other Native students leave their home communities for educational opportunities not available locally. Students living and attending school away from home may face many difficulties in academic and social adjustment.

The school should be aware of the special needs of Native students coming into the school and the kinds of assistance available to them. Support services are available to Native students according to their status, as designated by the federal government. Financial assistance and other support services from both federal and provincial government departments and from Indian education authorities use the following designated categories for Native students:

- status or registered Indian)
- treaty Indian) — referred to as status Indians
- non-treaty Indian)

- non-status Indian)
- Métis) — referred to as non-status
- enfranchised Indian)

These categories are explained in Appendix B.1. Information about the kinds of support available and a list of support agencies are provided in Appendices B.2 and B.3.

The school should identify a staff contact person responsible for the reception, placement and follow-up of Native students. The contact person should register the student and assist in setting up a suitable program. The contact person should also maintain communication with the student's parents or guardians and with the student's receiving counsellor who is responsible for students who have left their communities to attend school in other centres.

Documentation of previous school experience does not always accompany the student and should be obtained immediately by the contact person from the student's previous school. (See Appendix B.4 for a list of Band - Operated, Federal and Frontier schools.) Pertinent medical information

for status Indian students from reserves, if not in the student's records, can be requested through the receiving counsellor from Northern Medical Services. School records for Native students should include space to record name and telephone number of the receiving counsellor and the telephone number of the sponsoring or support agency if any, and name and address of the agency responsible for non-resident fees if applicable (see Appendix A.3).

During registration, students should be informed of the possibilities of obtaining up to a maximum of three (3) credits for proficiency in their Native language. Assistance with Native language testing can be obtained from the Native Language Consultants, Native Education Branch, of the Manitoba Department of Education.

Students in need of financial help should be made aware of the assistance available to them. All resident students in Manitoba, except Status Indian students living permanently on a reserve, are eligible for Provincial Government Bursaries by making application to the Student Aid Branch, 693 Taylor Avenue, Winnipeg R3M 2K2. Status Indian students are assisted through their Tribal Council Education Department/The Manitoba Indian Education Association, Inc., or the federal Department of Indian Affairs. Further information can be found in Appendix B.5.

Information for school staffs concerning resource assistance for Native students can be found in Appendix B.6.

PLACEMENT OF STUDENTS WITH LIMITED PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH

Success in school and in language learning depends as much upon the development of social relationships and opportunities for language use, as on language instruction. If students are to develop these relationships, it is important that students be placed with their peers, who share similar interests, and are at similar levels of maturity and development. Many secondary school courses, e.g. art, music, physical education, mathematics, are accessible to students at low levels of English proficiency. Initial placement can be in these subjects, with more linguistically demanding courses being added as growth in language occurs.

Students cannot, however, develop the language skills necessary to fulfill the requirements for high school graduation or to function successfully in post-secondary institutions or the workplace through these courses alone. Deliberate attempts must be made to foster language

growth through the regular school programs and programs especially created for LPE students with the aim of making school programs accessible to all students.

In dealing with students whose previous academic experiences have not adequately prepared them for secondary school courses in certain areas, attention should be given to academic upgrading as well as language development. Academic upgrading and language development should be provided by the classroom teacher, through a resource or peer-tutoring program, or, where numbers permit, the establishment of classes in which language and academic needs can be addressed. (See "Programming for Students with Limited Proficiency in English", page 14).

Beginning ESL Students

Students with no knowledge of English should be placed in an ESL program with students of the same age at the neighbourhood school, or in another school or division. In areas where an ESL program is not available, special provision must be made to accommodate these students within the school. Program options for ESL students are given in the section "Programming for LPE Students" and an ESL curriculum for these students is suggested. Whatever approach is taken, an attempt should be made to accommodate the ESL student as soon as possible within the regular school program.

The nature of the program in which the student is to be placed should be explained to the family, particularly if the student must travel some distance from home. Some idea about the length of time the student will probably spend in the program and the student's options upon its completion should also be given. High school age students should be assured that placement in ESL classes can earn credits and contribute to success in the regular program.

Placement in Junior High School

Junior high school allows for flexibility in programming to accommodate students at different levels of language and academic development in the same grade. It is recommended that twelve to thirteen year olds be placed in grade 7; thirteen to fourteen year olds in grade 8; fourteen to fifteen year olds in grade 9. Language assistance and academic upgrading can be offered in addition to, or in place of, regular programs so that students can move from one grade to the next alongside their peers.

Placement in Senior High School

In senior high school, individualization of timetables and the course options available make it possible to accommodate students age 16 and over at many levels of language and academic

functioning. Grade placement within a subject area should be based on the student's potential for success in a particular course. The student's previous academic background and present level of English should be considered. Suggestions for assessing the student's language readiness for a course can be found in the section, "Assessment for Placement". In a departmentalized senior high school, informal assessment of the student's subject area background and skills can be arranged through a department head or teacher.

The High School Credit System and the Student of Limited Proficiency in English

Twenty credits are required for high school graduation in Manitoba. Courses in a wide range of subject areas to suit a variety of ability levels may be available to the student. Students with limited proficiency in English, however, regardless of innate ability, are often restricted in their choice of courses and ultimately in their career possibilities unless attempts are made to upgrade academic and linguistic skills. While there are ten required subjects for high school graduation, some of the ten optional credits may be used to give students the opportunity to participate in ESL or transition programs for language and academic upgrading. The Department of Education[2] permits schools to develop courses, using the SIC X05 designation, of relevance to their students. Students wishing to undertake language study or academic upgrading on their own initiative can also obtain credit through student initiated projects or through G.E.D. tests.[3]

Regular high school students can initiate projects in which they undertake to help LPE students with specific academic upgrading. Such projects can be used to earn a credit for the student.

Students who are proficient in languages not included in the regular high school program are also eligible to write language tests[4] in those languages for a maximum of three credits in any one language.

Credits for New Canadian Students

New Canadian students at the secondary level are often pressured for time to learn English and acquire the twenty credits within their high school years. Students can be helped to meet the requirements of the credit system in several ways.

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[2] Administrative Handbook for Manitoba Schools, Section 9.03 (See Appendix)
[3] Ibid, 9.02, 9.11 (See Appendix)
[4] Ibid, 9.10 (See Appendix)

In addition to credits earned through ESL or transition programs and special language exams, students may also be granted credit for studies completed prior to immigration.

New Canadian students who wish to obtain high school standing for work done outside Canada must provide the school with (a) original documents of all post elementary education completed before coming to Canada, (b) an official statement as to the school's status from the provincial/state/country Department of Education if some or all studies were undertaken in a private school.

When it is impossible for students to produce the required documents, they must provide the school with an affidavit which indicates all post-elementary education completed.

For further information on out-of-province appraisals and for guidelines for establishing equivalencies of student records from many countries please see Department of Education guidelines.[5]

Credit granted for studies outside Canada, however, may not guarantee the student's success in a certain level. Where language skills are inadequate, the student will need assistance before or while attempting a course. Where academic skills are, in fact, lower than indicated by a transcript, preparatory work may have to be done at a lower level and subsequent credit adjustments made. For example, if a student is granted grade 10 equivalency, but is unprepared for grade 11 mathematics, credit cannot be granted for a 100/101 mathematics course. However, a credit for a transition LPE Math 105 could be given as one of the ten optional credits.

The granting of credit for work done before coming to Canada, and through the special language exams, is an important factor in the immigrant students' cultural adjustment because it gives recognition to the knowledge and skills they bring with them.

ORIENTATION AND FOLLOW-UP

Immigrant Students

Once a suitable placement has been determined, the student and family should be informed of the student's status in the school. It should be made clear to the student, the parents and the receiving teachers that inital placements are tentative and subject to review. Regular consul-

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[5] Ibid, 9.09 (See Appendix)

tation with students and receiving teachers can give an informal assessment of the initial placement so that necessary adjustments can be made.

Since immigrant students arrive throughout the year, an extra effort must be made to help them ease into the school routine. Students should be introduced to their teachers before beginning classes. Lockers and textbooks should be assigned where appropriate. New students should also be introduced to their peers and perhaps assigned a "buddy", a student of the same age who is already familiar with the school, to help in the initial adjustment to the new situation.

Group and individual counselling sessions, involving interpreters where necessary, can help to familiarize students with various aspects of school and Canadian life, such as the credit system, winter preparation, or school rules and regulations.

The academic and social adjustment of immigrant students is a lengthy process. Contact with the student and receiving teachers should be maintained as long as the student is receiving language assistance. Student progress can be monitored through informal contacts, scheduled interviews with students or written reports from teachers. Information gained in this way can be used to make adjustments in the student's program, and to provide appropriate academic and social supports.

It is also important to maintain home contact as long as the student is in the school. Extra effort is required to communicate with parents who are unfamiliar with the Canadian school system and who do not speak English. Notices of school events, parents' meetings and parent-teacher interviews should be sent out in the language of the home. Interpreters should be available for these functions. If parents are unable to visit the school, arrangements for home visits can be made with the help of an interpreter. When a student is experiencing difficulty in school, it is especially important to contact parents before decisions affecting the student's future plans are made.

Native Students

The school contact person for Native students should receive a list of incoming students from the receiving counsellor or advisor from a sponsoring agency. An orientation session of one or two days prior to school registration could then be planned for the new students. This session should include information about the school procedures, credit system, recreational activities, and other related information.

Adjustment to the new school may last far beyond the first semester. The first experiences in a new school are crucial to the student's success. The school contact person should monitor each student closely to provide assistance in adjusting to the changes and in finding and utilizing school/community resources.

A strong network of communication among student, school contact person and sponsoring agency is essential. The receiving counsellor of the sponsoring agency maintains regular communication with the student's parents in the home community. Schools should send the parents, through the receiving counsellor, an interim progress report in mid-October as parents are concerned about the academic success of their children.

The school contact person should build and maintain a supportive relationship with the student throughout the year. An informal buddy system; bulletin boards of events of interest within the new community; regular informal meetings; designating a room in which students can socialize and study are some possible ways the school can receive and support the Native student. The school should also attempt to include Native people as members of its professional and paraprofessional staff.

PROGRAMMING FOR STUDENTS WITH LIMITED PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH

The overall goal of programming for students with limited English proficiency is to provide opportunities for students to acquire the cultural, linguistic and academic skills necessary to achieve their potential in schools where English is used as the language of instruction.[6]

In order to provide students with maximum opportunities to achieve their potential, schools are encouraged to provide SIC and/or SIP school options where instruction will be sensitive to a wide range of student needs.[7]

The following course goals could be used for developing courses to meet the needs of most students. Detailed SIC's or SIP's could be developed from these goal statements. Students and teachers need to be aware that the ESL "05" programs, like other "05" programs, (except physical education) can not be used to meet core requirements for high school standing.

ESL Level I Program — To develop basic English language skills necessary for living in an English milieu. The content comes mainly from the immediate environment and the student's daily needs for communication. Recommended SIC designation: ESL 105

ESL Level II Program — To develop English language skills necessary for integrating into regular school programs where English is the language of instruction. The thematic content comes from the regular curriculum. Recommended SIC designation: ESL 205

LPE Transition Programs — To develop language and academic skills and concepts, or for transferring such concepts into English, in preparation for entry into regular school programs for which a student expects to earn a required high school credit. Recommended SIC designation: LPE Language and Science 105, LPE Language and Mathematics 105.

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[6] See pages 3-4 for details on goals and objectives.

[7] Department of Education approval for SIC or SIP is not required but a detailed course plan for SIC and SIP should be submitted to the Department. A course plan should include a rationale, aims, content and evaluation techniques for assessing student performance and the course. Appendix C, Section 9.03.

LPE Functional Literacy Program — To develop communication skills useful for citizenship and employment purposes. Recommended SIC designation: LPE Literacy 305

LPE Special Needs — To develop basic communication skills in students who have severe language acquisition and learning difficulties. Credit and course designation to be determined by the school.

The above options could be offered in separate classes or to a group within a regular classroom as in situations where there are only a few students at various levels of English in a school division. When students are integrated into regular class subjects, it is suggested that more time than usual be given to pre-teaching of concepts, key vocabulary, and to the review of lessons and assignments.

Whenever students receive their Level I and II ESL instruction in special classes, they should be placed in regular class subjects for part of the day so that they have opportunities for contact with English speaking students. Regular class placements, while students are in a Level I or II ESL program, should give preference to subjects where language requirements pose the least problem to participation, and opportunities for social/recreational contacts are maximized.

An ESL Level I Program Outline: ESL 105

Rationale — An ESL 105 course is offered to accommodate the needs of students who are unable to receive meaningful instruction via the regular curriculum because they have little or no knowledge of English.

Aim — The immediate aim of a Level I ESL course is to provide students with opportunities to acquire the necessary language skills for living in an English milieu; the long term aim is to integrate the students into the mainstream of the school.

Objective — To provide formal and informal opportunities for students to acquire oral and written English language communication skills.

Methodology

Students should be placed in a relaxed, low anxiety learning environment which will foster language acquisition. Students need exposure to language usage at an appropriate level through real life or simulated experiences and encouragement to use English in situations where the focus is entirely on communication and not on correctness. Students should also be provided with reading, writing and skill development activities based on experiences for which they have already used English. In addition, students need exposure to formal language learning for purposes of editing communication.

Content

The content for an ESL Level I program would come mainly from the student's immediate environment and need for language. Suggested themes around which language experiences could be developed are:

- self, family, friends
- weather, seasons
- time, days, weeks, months, birthdays
- currency, buying, selling
- daily routines
- feelings, recreation, occupations.

In dealing with these themes, students should have opportunities to use language for a variety of purposes, e.g. agreeing, denying, describing, requesting, reporting, comparing, identifying, justifying, protecting, evaluating, predicting.

Evaluation

Student progress reports should focus on communication skills gained. Course content and methodology should be assessed by reviewing carefully the student's need for language and orientation information. Also, the evaluation should review the quality or relevance of the experiences provided by the instruction.

An ESL Level II Program Outline: ESL 205

Rationale

An ESL 205 course is offered to accommodate the needs of students who, because their knowledge of English is not sufficient, are not able to receive meaningful instruction via the regular curriculum.

Aim	The aim of the course is to provide students who have completed an ESL 105 program, or who have comparable language skills, with opportunities to develop their English language skills in preparation for entry into existing school programs.
Objective	To provide formal and informal opportunities for students to improve their oral and written English language communication skills.
Methodology	Instruction should focus on developing listening, speaking, reading and writing skills using topics related to existing school curricula and relevant cultural information. Students should be exposed to language through direct experiences wherever possible.
Content	The thematic content should come mainly from the regular curriculum. For each topic selected, material at a wide range of reading levels should be provided. It may be necessary for the teacher to write passages based on the students' classroom experience with the topic. Study skills should also be developed. Subject area curricula should be consulted for themes around which language experiences and skills could be developed. Since most topics on secondary curricula are already introduced in elementary curricula, it may be helpful to also review the elementary curricula that address the same topics.
Evaluation	A direct test of student progress would be to give students many opportunities to integrate into regular classes or into LPE transitional programs. This would provide both the student and the teacher with useful information as to the success of existing ESL programs. An indirect test of student progress could involve criterion-referenced testing related to topics presented in class. Students should also be evaluated in their ability to understand, speak, read and write in a variety of situations. Whenever students are not making progress, it is important to try and establish the reasons for the difficulties.

Transition Courses for LPE students

Rationale

An LPE transition course may be offered to accommodate the needs of students whose knowledge of English and academic skills in a specific subject area are not sufficient to enable them to receive meaningful instruction in that subject in a regular class.

Aim

The aim of a transition course is to provide students with opportunities to develop their English language skills while acquiring the necessary minimum level of academic background knowledge necessary to receive meaningful instruction in a subject in a regular class.

Objectives

The objectives of a transition course are determined by carefully reviewing the linguistic and academic skills necessary for meaningful participation in a regular class. Those skill areas in which students need help and which cannot be sufficiently addressed through regular classroom instruction should be included as objectives for transition courses.

Methodology

Instruction should focus on developing higher level listening, speaking, reading and writing skills using topics taken from the regular curriculum in specific subjects. Instruction should provide opportunities for students to experience concepts. Content should be sequenced for both concept and language development. Students should have opportunities to phase into regular class instruction. Grouping and cooperative learning techniques[8] are important instructional approaches for transition courses.

Content

Regular high school curriculum topics, considered critical for entry to regular programs, should be used as content. Materials of various reading levels can be used to support the topics.

Evaluation

Evaluation of the students and the course should consider the students' abilities to meet the requirements for entry into the regular program.

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[8] See Appendix D.5

SUGGESTIONS FOR HELPING THE LPE STUDENT IN THE REGULAR CLASSROOM

It is not always possible to provide a class for LPE students when there are only a few in a grade or school. Accommodation should then be made within regular classes to provide students with academic, linguistic and social support.

Further, once students from special language and transition programs have been integrated into regular classes, there may be a continuing need for language development and other kinds of assistance. A number of considerations can help to ease the student's adjustment to the regular classroom and increase the student's chances for academic success.

The following list of suggestions should be useful to subject area teachers who have LPE students in their classes.

1. Assign a "buddy" to help the student with social adjustment and academic work. Beginning ESL students should be assigned a bilingual buddy; students with some proficiency in English should be assigned a buddy who can provide a good model of language and behaviour.

   The responsibilities of the buddy could include familiarizing the student with school routines and procedures, introducing the student to classmates and school personnel, including the student in school activities, and helping the student with assignments or putting the student in touch with someone who can provide the needed assistance. The buddy's involvement with a student is limited only by the buddy's interest and the teacher's imagination.

2. Set up opportunities for "peer-tutoring". Students often learn best from a patient helper who can take the time to provide individualized explanations and assistance. An attempt should be made to choose a tutor who is capable, articulate, understanding and willing to help.

3. Arrange tutoring sessions with older or more advanced students, school personnel, or adult volunteers who could help the student complete assignments or review class presentations.

4. Seat students needing individual assistance near the teacher. This makes it easier to give special instructions quickly and privately and for the student to ask for help.

5. Involve students, even those of very limited proficiency, in classroom activities. Encourage them to participate in classroom routines. Include them in lessons by asking them questions which they can answer in a few words.

6. Organize classroom activities to provide opportunities for language practice. Pair students to complete assignments, have group discussions or use cooperative learning techniques.[9]

7. Use concrete experiences and materials to teach new concepts and language. Make extensive use of the chalk board or overhead. Use a multi-media approach to reinforce new learning. Verbal explanations are easily lost.

8. Pre-teach important concepts and related language to students, or have a buddy or volunteer do it. Provide background knowledge and skills where lacking. Provide additional activities for follow-up and review.

9. Give assignments ahead of time and allow extra time for their completion. Give students an outline of lectures or presentations ahead of time. Provide reading guides to help students through difficult materials.

10. Give students alternate assignments and readings. Find materials which present key concepts in simplified form.

11. Make concessions in testing. Allow students to do oral rather than written tests, or to take a longer time to complete the test. Allow students to use their dictionaries.

12. Encourage students to use a dictionary in class and at home.

13. Be more aware of your language. Select key sentence patterns and repeat them during a lesson. Avoid using too many colloquial or slang expressions.

14. Be aware of key words and expressions which may not be understood by the students. Write these down and explain them using concrete examples, gestures, or diagrams.

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[9] See Appendix D.5

15. Provide opportunities for activities that do not involve English, such as native language print materials, puzzles, non-dialogue films and film strips.

16. Be a model of acceptance and understanding. Show an appreciation of cultural differences and an interest in each student as an individual.

17. Give recognition to the students' cultures in the classroom. Display maps, pictures and artwork which reflects the students' backgrounds.

18. Encourage students to participate in out-of-class activities. Assign a buddy to take the student to the first meeting of a team or club.

19. Get to know the students. Be approachable. Encourage questions about classwork and engage the student in conversation on a variety of topics.

20. Be aware of the student's need to communicate and the difficulty in doing so. Make time available each day for this purpose. Accept the student's errors in grammar and pronunciation and concentrate on the message. Make a mental note of a students' errors for future lesson planning.

21. Don't be too annoyed if the students seem idle or uninterested from time to time. Learning a new language is hard work and soon leads to frustration and fatigue. Take a break and try again later.

MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

In keeping with the broad goals of public education, multicultural education stresses that the principle of starting the teaching/learning process with the student's own knowledge and experience must be applied to the teaching of students from all backgrounds. Students whose background knowledge, interests and experience are not adequately reflected in the learning environment should be provided with appropriate support in their efforts to achieve confidence, positive identity, self-worth and academic success. Furthermore, multicultural education stresses the need for groups to share cultures and initiate activities that will foster common cultural practices and attitudes, and at the same time, support the maintenance of cultural groups in a pluralistic society. Multicultural education advocates an acceptance and a commitment to the notion that cultural pluralism has significant educational and social value to society.

Multicultural education begins by giving recognition to the student's home and community experience. Secondly, since students from cultural minorities go through the emotional experience of selective acculturation, efforts must be made by the school to indicate ways in which groups and individuals can rationalize their participation in a pluralistic society. Thirdly, when cultural pluralism is viewed as an asset to society at large, efforts must be made to support the maintenance of cultural groups. As attitudes towards one's own culture are influenced by experiences at school, it is necessary for schools to initiate activities that will foster development and support for cultural minorities.

Although studies have shown that Canadian attitudes are changing and cultural diversity is seen more and more as a positive presence in society, not all Canadians are equally committed to the concept of multiculturalism. Some Canadians expect that minority groups will assimilate into Canadian society; others believe that all groups have the freedom to maintain those parts of their heritage and culture of greatest value to them. The Governments of Canada and Manitoba are committed to the enhancement of cultural pluralism and to the amelioration of conditions which restrict individuals from cultural, racial and religious minorities from participating freely in Canadian society. The viewpoints of political groups and individuals, though varied, must not stand in the way of addressing the issues of cultural diversity in the school community. Schools have the responsibility of working towards a harmonious multicultural milieu.

Among the many issues facing young adults from minority groups, the concern over cultural and linguistic identity is perhaps the most important because the way students perceive themselves has significant implications for learning. Also entry into certain public school programs is based on cultural and linguistic identity.

Consider the identity resolution process for many Native people or immigrants who have a mixed cultural, racial, and/or linguistic background. The language of the home could be designated as official or non-official. Languages spoken and place of residence could have built a partial identity with one or the other official language groups, or with a non-official language group. Culturally there could be close ties or no ties to a heritage and/or a homeland. Racial identity may present choices to the individual and may also lead to inappropriate identification by others in situations where a young adult has identifiable features e.g. racial characteristics, name, accent — but doesn't have any ties which give support and substance to such an identification.

For many students the identity builders of language, cultural background, race, place of birth, are the very factors which complicate identity resolution. The questions of "Who am I?" and "How do I fit into Canadian society?" are extremely complex and may seem to be without resolution.

Students will feel an urgency to resolve concerns over their identity. Where do they belong? Are they Canadian? Where can they receive recognition and pride for who they really are? Schools must play an important role in helping students to rationalize their identity in a multicultural society.

Issues like identity resolution, the development of positive attitudes towards persons of different cultures and an appreciation of one's heritage do not resolve themselves by chance. Since what happens at school affects the outcomes of these and other issues, schools should set multicultural objectives and develop strategies to achieve them. Also, it is important to evaluate to what extent the objectives are being met. Schools should consider the following objectives and suggested activities as an example of how a school could work towards the goal of creating positive understanding between persons of diverse cultural backgrounds.

1. Develop closer, meaningful contacts between students from various cultural and racial groups. In assigning group work, teachers should use strategies to ensure that there is an ethnic and racial mix in groups. Cooperative learning techniques are useful in facilitating the work of groups which are characterized as diverse.

   Provide opportunities for students to learn languages other than French or English. All students should be encouraged to study another language, the goal being to learn some basic vocabulary and expressions in another language so as to gain contact and appreciation of other cultures found in the school community.

2. Provide visibility for minority groups in the school. Libraries are encouraged to subscribe to ethnic publications and display them along with other materials. Also, the library should have a collection of reading material (historical, current, fictional), that is easily identified as coming from or relating to an ethnic or racial group.

   Posters and films about Native and ethnic groups could be shared as part of regular curricula or as an extracurricular activity. Some schools have successfully conducted mini-folkloramas and found that they offered many opportunities for ethnic communities to gain visibility which carried well beyond the festival.

3. Reduce ethnic and racial name calling. It is important for the minority child and others to understand that racial name calling is not acceptable, and for all persons to know acceptable references for ethnic and racial groups. It is not possible to control all behaviour, but that is never an excuse for not having a policy and taking a stand against such practices.

4. Create a welcoming and accepting atmosphere for all incoming students. Enlist the support of regular students who could help a newcomer get involved in activities of the school. Schools should also consider forming new clubs to reflect the interests of a changing school population. Extracurricular activities are potentially excellent avenues for providing meaningful contact between students. A "buddy system" can help a newcomer feel welcome and it provides many opportunities for the newcomers to meet other students informally and get oriented to a new school community.

5. Show positive attitudes and behaviours to all students. It is accepted that all teachers are doing this to the best of their ability, but by openly discussing, and carefully evaluating attitudes, awareness can be raised and new ideas can come forward. Teachers may claim that they do not discriminate against minority group students, but the students may see the situation differently. A teacher who frequently talks to students about hockey, weather, fashion and news items may not notice that Chinese or Native students are never included in these informal chats, but the minority group students will take notice. They may even conclude that the teacher does not like them personally or even does not like Chinese or Natives in particular. Even though the students' conclusions may be wrong, the teacher has done little to dispel that feeling. Teachers, too, need meaningful contact with students from minority groups and their communities so that these students can be drawn into discussions. Similarly materials used may unintentionally avoid some Canadian cultural groups. Schools are encouraged to conduct cultural awareness sessions and review the materials used for instruction.

7. Promote the positive aspects of cultural diversity.
Experiences, development and contributions of minority groups could be stressed. Teach immigration history. Promote the continuing contributions of Native people to the development of Canada.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT - BACKGROUND AND APPROACH

Language is a fundamental human attribute. Most children learn to speak their first language with ease and use it with pride and assurance. Many learn to read and write with ease as well, so that by the time they are in the secondary school, language skills for both social and academic use are well-established.

Secondary students whose exposure to English has been limited are likely to encounter considerable difficulty in the school system. Many students, first and second language learners alike, speak English well in informal situations, but experience great difficulty with the spoken and written language in the classroom. Other students who speak English as a second language may be able to survive in the classroom, but may not yet have acquired the language to express themselves in social situations. If these students are to achieve to the full extent of their abilities in secondary school programs, attention must be given to language development in all areas of the high school curriculum.

The exact nature of the language development process is not fully understood. Enough, however, has been learned through observation and research to provide the classroom teacher with some general principles of language and language learning which can guide the teaching/learning process and make the secondary school curriculum a successful language learning experience for all students.

Language

Languages, in spite of their great diversity, do share many common characteristics. The process of first language acquisition in children, too, shows great similarity, regardless of the language being learned.

A language is a set of symbols which are arranged according to certain patterns. In the course of evolution, members of a given speech community have arbitrarily assigned certain combinations of sounds (words) to objects and concepts, and agreed to use certain combinations of words (grammatical structures) to express ideas and relationships. The words and the structures vary from one language to another; the underlying concepts and relationships are often similar. All languages, for example, have words to represent people, "man", "woman",

"boy", "girl", although the actual words are different. Similarly, all languages have grammatical devices to express possession, plurality, or time, although the exact forms may be different.

There is never, however, true equivalence of meaning from one language to another, because each society views reality in a slightly different way. For example, the notion of a "person" in a society where the average life expectancy is 40 years is quite different from that held by a society with a life expectancy of 80. The concept of possession to the average North American means something quite different from possession to a member of a communal society.

First Language (L1) Acquisition

Children, as they grow and mature, gradually acquire the language and cultural understandings of their own language communities. They are not formally taught a first language. Although children are surrounded with language from their earliest days, the critical component in the process of language acquisition is the amount and kind of language directed toward the child. Adults and others provide language at a level that children can understand both conceptually and linguistically and respond to their attempts at speech. Speech addressed to children usually relates to their needs and interests, to objects in the environment, or to the situation at hand. Others respond to the content, rather than the form, of the children's utterances and the children are thus engaged in using the language in order to communicate with others.

Children's first attempts at speech are simply babbling, using the speech organs to produce an endless variety of sounds. Those which resemble words in the language to be learned are recognized and reinforced by others. Children repeat these sounds with greater frequency, and gradually the others fall into disuse.

As children become more aware of the people and things in their environment, they begin to label them, to associate the appropriate sounds and objects. As they become aware of attributes and relationships, they begin to use words in combination, e.g. "baby shoe", and to modify words, e.g. "shoes", to express these attributes and relationships. Linguistic and cognitive growth then proceed together as children's experiences expose them to more complex ideas and language.

Provided with the experiences and the social interactions through which language acquisition can take place, children make use of their innate ability to gradually construct for

themselves the language of the home. In doing so, they make use of a variety of strategies. Imitation is probably the earliest and most obvious, but a study of child speech reveals many utterances which cannot be explained by imitation alone. Children make creative use of language and are actively involved in making and testing hypotheses about the rules of the language. These attempts at rule formation are believed to be at the root of such utterances as "car red". Children also make use of the strategy of generalization. Once a rule has been perceived it is then tested in many situations, sometimes producing incorrect forms such as "foots", "eated", until its limitations as well as its applications are learned.

These processes of language acquisition have been observed in children learning many different first languages. It has also been observed that children learning a given language acquire certain grammatical constructions in a similar order. This provides further evidence that children have an innate ability for language learning.

By forming and testing their hypotheses about language, children approximate and eventually attain adult norms. At the same time, they are learning the culturally determined meanings of the language through their interactions with others. Most children have this innate ability for language learning. However, children who receive little stimulation or attention in their early years may lag behind their peers in the development of concepts and language. Often these children are identified when they begin school, and given special assistance in developing oral language skills. When this does not happen, the school experience can be one of frustration and failure, and the children fall further behind their peers with each passing year.

Young children spend several years developing oral language before learning to read. The process of reading requires the association of a written symbol with a well-established aural one; writing requires the recall and production of the visual symbol which represents a particular word. When concepts and language are well-established, reading and writing follow easily and naturally. Children not yet secure in their conceptual and oral language development may experience difficulty when reading and writing are introduced. These difficulties are compounded as students move through the school system.

Language is also remarkable for its variety. Communication occurs under many different circumstances and for many different reasons. The informal language of the home or playground is quite different from the more formal language of the school or workplace, or from the specialized language of certain disciplines or professions. The school, and its curriculum,

assume that students have attained a certain level of cognitive and linguistic development, and that students are familiar with many varieties of English.

Children, however, learn through their experiences. Those who have been exposed to many different situations in life and who have had the opportunity to talk about them are able to profit from the school experience. Those whose experiences and opportunities for language use have been limited may not yet be ready to take advantage of all the school has to offer. Where language and concepts crucial to school success are lacking, it is the responsibility of the school to provide experiences which will help students to acquire the necessary concepts and language.

Second Language (L2) Acquisition

In recent years, a great deal has been written about second language learning and there has been a proliferation of methods and materials for learners of all ages. While most have shown some merit, none has proven to be universally acceptable or effective. Teachers have found that the most successful method of second language instruction is an eclectic one which takes into consideration the nature of the language learning process and the needs and interests of the learners.

It was once assumed that first and second language learning were essentially different processes. Studies of language errors made by second language learners in a variety of languages, however, indicate that the innate ability to learn language is still operant, even in older learners. Second language learners, too, seem to make use of strategies of imitation, hypothesis testing, and generalization in their attempts to approximate the new language. It has also been found that, like L1 learners, L2 learners acquire certain grammatical constructions in a similar manner. Studies of successful second language learners suggest that the critical factors in second language acquisition are attitude, motivation, and the willingness and the opportunity to use the new language for the purpose of real communication.

If first and second language acquisition are similar processes, the obvious implication is that the school must provide the conditions under which successful language acquisition can take place. The nature of language instruction must also be examined.

Students must, first of all, be motivated to learn the language. The L2 learner's attitude toward the new language and the motivation to learn it are affected by social factors. Learning a new language implies learning a new cultural system as well. Where the learning of

another language and culture is seen as an imposition on the student's feelings of identity and self-worth, and as an attempt to replace one language with another, there is likely to be resistance to L2 learning. Further, the student who can already function effectively in one language and culture is unlikely to want to acquire another, unless the new language and culture are seen as necessary and desirable. Experiences with the new language and culture must be positive and provide opportunities for the student to be successful.

The students' feelings about the second language and culture are determined by the quality of their experiences in that culture and the degree to which they are able to reconcile their own language and cultural values with those being learned. At the same time, it must be clear to the student that the first language and culture are still an acceptable and viable means of communication in many aspects of the student's life. Development in the first language should be encouraged. Second language learning is a way of broadening the student's life by adding another system of communication to use in appropriate situations.

The school must also provide students with meaningful language input and opportunities to use language for the purpose of communication in a variety of circumstances. Outside the school, the beginning ESL student is surrounded by language, most of it incomprehensible. People who engage the student in conversation outside of school expect a certain level of language proficiency from an older student and use language that may be beyond the student's level of comprehension. The classroom can provide students with language that is understandable even at very low levels of English through the use of concrete referents, visuals and experiences. Classroom practice can be organized in such a way that students are involved in communicating with the teacher and with one another about the topic at hand without undue concern for the correctness of language used. For many older L2 learners opportunities to use the new language outside of school are limited. The L1 is used in the home, with friends outside the classroom and often in the community.

The secondary student, therefore, needs many opportunities for language acquisition both in and out of the classroom in order to develop the varieties of English necessary for success in school and in the community. Classroom activities which encourage communication about real and relevant information give students this opportunity. Problem solving activities, and large and small group discussions which encourage students to listen, speak, read and write in meaningful situations contribute to the natural acquisition of language. A child has several years to acquire a first language. The older student expects, and is expected to learn a second language rapidly in order to succeed in school and to function as an articulate and literate

member of society. Not only must language be acquired, but also a wide range of content, almost all of it conveyed by the vehicle of language.

The L2 learner, however, already has one language system and an advanced level of cognitive development. In the past, interference, the inappropriate transfer of language forms from the first language into the second, was seen as the major impediment to L2 learning. While interference certainly exists, particularly at the level of sound production, transfer now appears to be only one of many strategies used by the L2 learner. The presence of a first language may, in fact, work to the learner's advantage. Because many basic concepts which underlie all languages have already been acquired, the second language learner can rapidly acquire the related language once aware of a concept and the way it is expressed, and given opportunities for practice. The knowledge of one language system as well as some specific language forms, are also transferable to the new language. The L2 learner who is literate in the first language is similarly able to transfer many reading and writing skills to the new language. Given ample opportunities for language acquisition, this store of knowledge can be tapped.

Opportunities for language acquisition are central to the L2 learner's success. At the same time, however, there is a need for language learning - the deliberate study of the forms and mechanics of language.

There is evidence that the natural language acquisition mechanism of the older learner is less efficient than the child's. When the emphasis is on communication, grammatical accuracy is of secondary importance and language acquired naturally may attain varying degrees of correctness. In addition to opportunities for language acquisition, older students also need opportunities for language learning, the deliberate study of the mechanics of language, as an aid in achieving acceptable standards of pronunciation and grammatical correctness. Such instruction makes minimal contribution to language acquisition, but does equip the student to edit oral and written production.

It has been estimated that it takes a minimum of one year for a L2 learner to become superficially fluent in the L2, and three years or more to begin functioning at peer level in the school setting. Some students appear to have an aptitude for language, much like a gift for music or art, which contributes to speed and ease of language learning. For most, however, successful language learning takes time and deliberate attempts at language development on the part of all teachers. Too often second language learners are judged on the basis of

superficial fluency and little effort is made to help them continue to develop their language skills. Those are the students who fall behind in school, are labelled slow learners and may eventually drop out of school altogether. At the same time, teachers should be alert to the possibility that some L2 learners may also have perceptual, emotional or intellectual difficulties, and seek proper assessment and assistance for students whose progress is unusually slow.

A LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT APPROACH

All secondary school programs have the potential to be effective vehicles for language development. Language is the major means of transmitting knowledge in the classroom. Mastery of English is essential for success in English schools and for further study in any subject area. With a language development approach, students are not only exposed to concepts and language, but also given many opportunities to practise the language of key concepts in listening, speaking, reading and writing so that both concepts and language are internalized.

A language development approach can be adapted to any subject area and should be implemented in classrooms with LPE students. The content of the regular program provides material that is relevant and interesting to the students, and an ideal focus for language development activities. It is also important for students to realize that language learning is a priority throughout the school and that their efforts to learn and improve their English are recognized throughout the school.

The first consideration in a language development approach is motivation. The student must feel comfortable and accepted in the school environment. The second language learner and the student from a first language background, whose opportunities for language use outside of school have been limited and whose language development has been slow, need language learning experiences which are both meaningful and successful. This is especially important where a pattern of failure has been established. These students also need to develop positive attitudes to the language and culture of the school.

Another important motivator for students of secondary school age is peer acceptance. Friendships and working relationships with peers are essential to the development of social language, and a valuable educational support. The beginning second language learner needs help and encouragement to establish contacts with English-speaking peers; the first and second language learners who have experienced failure in school need opportunities to succeed if they are to achieve peer and self-acceptance.

Once positive attitudes and motivation for language development have been created, an effective language development approach must give attention to the development of cognitive skills and language. Before meaningful language practice can take place, concepts must be developed. Students with a limited command of English often fail because they are unable to grasp material

presented verbally; if a concept is not fully understood the related language is seldom acquired. The presentation of concepts should be as concrete as possible, using experiences, real objects, visuals, and a great deal of discussion through which the related language is introduced and students are able to associate concept and language.

Once a concept has been established and related language introduced, practice activities to reinforce content and language can be undertaken. These activities should provide students with opportunities to use language for meaningful communication so that language acquisition may take place. At the same time, these activities should help students develop an awareness of the patterns and the mechanics of the language.

The selection of content and language in any subject area is determined by the curriculum and the needs of the students. Before a unit of work is presented, an informal assessment of the students' conceptual understanding and language level can help to determine the amount and intensity of practice required. Decisions must be made concerning the pre-teaching of certain key concepts and language central to the material to be introduced.

In some cases, it may be necessary to group students for instruction; in others, a variety of activities may be developed around a concept to accommodate students at a variety of language levels.

Finally, a language development approach must give attention to the students' needs outside the school as well. Language for a variety of life situations - shopping, banking, applying for jobs, and working - is as necessary to future success as the language of the school and has an important role in the total language development process.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE SKILLS

Students need to develop proficiency in the four language skill areas - listening, speaking, reading and writing. Acquisition of language skills should accompany the development of basic concepts and thinking skills which are the basis of communication and future learning.

Through the content of the secondary school curriculum students are helped to develop a wide range of thinking skills. Through mathematics, students learn to use logical reasoning; through the sciences, students learn the skills of observation and classification; through history and geography students learn to understand sequencing, generalizations and cause and effect relationships. Students must acquire the language to express these processes in order to extend their thinking skills.

During the process of first language acquisition, young children spend several years developing listening and speaking skills within the context of the environment before learning to read and write. Meaning and language are inseparable in these early years. A network of concepts and language is acquired and forms the base for the development of reading and writing skills.

Students of limited proficiency in English, first and second language learners alike, need opportunities to practice all four language skills within meaningful contexts. These contexts include real life situations and the classroom content in a variety of subject areas.

Language skill development is most effective when built around concepts and language which are clearly understood. In the classroom, new concepts and related language should be presented as clearly as possible, through experiences, concrete referents, visuals, or demonstrations. Listening, speaking, reading and writing activities then provide students with opportunities to reinforce key concepts and develop language skills.

Language skills may be described as receptive or productive. Listening and reading are considered receptive skills because information is received through spoken or written language. Speaking and writing are considered productive skills because a message must be encoded and produced in speech or print.

Receptive skills develop first and exceed productive skills. A speaker of any language can, for example, understand spoken and written language at higher levels of complexity than can be

produced independently in speech or writing. This difference between the learner's receptive capacity for language and productive ability carries some important implications for instruction and assessment.

The student who does not perform well in speech or writing may be capable of understanding more complex spoken and written language. Students whose productive abilities are limited may nevertheless be able to benefit from classroom activities and presentations in many areas. Language input to these students need not necessarily be limited or modified as much as may be assumed from observing productive abilities alone.

On the other hand, students need sufficient practice in the receptive skills in order to improve production. Through listening and reading practice, the student is exposed to models of language which can eventually be internalized and later produced in speech or writing.

In measuring a student's competence in listening and reading, an attempt should be made to isolate these skills as much as possible so that limited productive ability does not mask receptive capacity. For example, an oral paraphrase or written summary of material heard or read may not give an accurate measure of listening or reading competence. Suggestions for appropriate means of assessing language skills are given in the section on "Assessment".

The chart on pages 37 - 39 illustrates the range of linguistic skills required of secondary school students. Classroom activities in all subject areas can and should contribute to the development of these skills. The activities described in this section of the handbook show some of the ways students can be helped to improve their listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Although the activities are organized by skill area, in classroom practice activities to develop the four skills should be integrated within the content of a lesson. Activities which develop all four skills should be selected to accompany each major concept introduced.

The activities are intended to provide students with opportunities to use the language in communicating about topics introduced in a variety of subject areas. Although the examples have been drawn from a variety of subject areas and grade levels, the activities are adaptable to other subjects and levels.

THE ESL STUDENT AND THE SECONDARY SCHOOL LANGUAGE ENVIRONMENT[10]

TEACHER AND MEDIA PRESENTATIONS

Listening	Understanding formal and informal language including idioms.
Speaking	Asking questions to confirm comprehension, clarify definitions, request repetition, and to get information on new vocabulary: spelling, pronunciation, and usage.
Reading	Following blackboard notes and diagrams. Understanding non-verbal representation of data in charts, diagrams, graphs, pictures and maps.
Writing	Copying notes and diagrams. Taking notes while listening.

PARTICIPATION IN DISCUSSION

Listening	Understanding conversational dialogue: idioms, informal speech.
Speaking	Turn-taking techniques. Interrupting and other conversational openers and closers. Asking and answering questions, expressing opinions, explaining, defending, debating, or arguing.
Reading	Referring to a text to support a point, or to confirm reasoning.
Writing	Making notes of important points in the discussion.

EXPERIENTIAL ACTIVITIES IN SCIENCE LABS, TECHNICAL SHOPS, HUMAN ECOLOGY CLASSES.

Listening	Understanding spoken directions, procedures and warnings.
Speaking	Seeking advice. Conferring with peers and teachers: discussing, explaining, defining, describing parts and processes.
Reading	Understanding written instructions, lists, charts, and other non-verbal data.
Writing	Preparing lab reports and summaries. Preparing and labelling diagrams and charts.

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[10] Adapted from Elizabeth Coelho, "Language Across the Curriculum", TESL Talk. Vol 13, No. 3, 1982. pp. 57-59.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

Reading	Understanding and selecting the questions.
Writing	Writing under time pressure. Responding to different test formats: true/false, cloze, multiple choice, sentence completion, matching, and essay-type.

USING TEXTS AND REFERENCE BOOKS

Listening	Understanding instructions: page and paragraph references, purposes in reading.
Reading	Reading to understand and retain information: skim, scan, read for detail and main idea; varying the reading rate for specific tasks. Inferring word meanings from context or with the use of English and bilingual dictionaries. Interpreting non-verbal data. Using reference skills to find, evaluate and select information. Understanding the rhetorical organization of formal prose. Recognizing bias and distinguishing opinion from fact.
Writing	Making notes. Precis and paraphrasing. Organizing data into the rhetorical patterns of English prose.

ASSIGNMENTS

Listening	Collecting information from oral sources: interviews, lectures and taped materials.
Speaking	Conducting surveys, interviews and giving oral presentations: addressing a specific audience, using visual aids, making eye-contact; speaking to inform, persuade, demonstrate, explain or express feelings; organizing information and ideas; speaking with clear intonation and pronunciation.
Reading	Understanding written instructions using reference skills and reading strategies.
Writing	Selecting appropriate rhetorical organization, vocabulary, and style. Preparing an outline. Acknowledging references and using quotations. Understanding one's purpose in writing: to persuade, describe, analyze, narrate, explain, and express feelings. Preparing a bibliography.

INTERACTION WITH AUTHORITY FIGURES, IN ACADEMIC AND EXTRA-CURRICULAR CONTEXTS

Listening	Understanding the sociolinguistic context and idiomatic and colloquial usage. Understanding school announcements.
Speaking	Selecting appropriate language and register. Requesting information, making appointments, and asking for directions.
Reading	Understanding forms, notices, announcements, school calendar, timetable, charts and graphs.
Writing	Requesting appointments, filling in forms, responding to surveys and questionaires.

SOCIAL/PEER GROUP INTERACTION

Listening	Understanding the sociolinguistic context and the idiomatic, colloquial, vulgar and non-verbal aspects of language.
Speaking	Selecting appropriate language and register.

LISTENING

Progress in secondary school depends on the student's ability to understand spoken English. Lessons, presentations, classroom instructions and homework assignments are frequently given orally. Students also need to understand the informal language of their peers and the people they encounter in their daily lives.

Little attention, however, is given specifically to the development of aural comprehension skills. The assumption is often made that exposure to a wide range of spoken language will lead automatically to this end. To the beginning language learner, simple conversational speech is an incomprehensible blur; to many students, the more formal language of the classroom is beyond their range of experience or interest. The special language of many disciplines is inaccessible to all but the trained expert.

Students need, first of all, to encounter comprehensible input. If students are to acquire language, they must be able to understand language directed to them in the classroom. In order to ensure comprehension of language related to a topic, new material must be presented in such a way that meaning is made clear through experience, demonstration, the use of real objects, or visual aids. Content which is highly abstract and which can only be presented verbally is best reserved for students at advanced levels of language development.

Once students are familiar with a concept and have been exposed to the related language, activities which focus on various levels of listening comprehension can be introduced. Initial activities may focus on the recognition of individual words; later activities may require students to derive meaning from progressively longer passages.

Students need to engage in activities which can help them to develop strategies for understanding spoken English. Any subject area can provide a multitude of opportunities for listening practice. Each discipline presents special difficulties and the development of aural comprehension needs attention in each subject area.

In addition to planned listening activities, many spontaneous opportunities for listening practice can be found in the school setting: visitors, school announcements, and assemblies. Students can be asked to report on what has been said, to carry out instructions or to demonstrate their understanding in other ways.

Activities to Develop Listening Skills

The activities described below are listed in order of increasing complexity. Those listed first are most appropriate for students at low levels of English competence; later activities are more appropriate for students at higher levels of proficiency in English. It should be remembered, however, that each time a new topic is introduced, many students are once again beginners and need to engage in basic listening comprehension activities. For example, the student who understands presentations in an advanced mathematics class may be at a beginning stage of aural comprehension in a new field such as electronics and require extensive listening practice in this area.

Although the focus is on listening comprehension, the activities integrate practice in speaking reading and writing. Activities including those intended for students at low levels of fluency, should provide an element of challenge and an example of natural language within the context of a lesson.

1. Word Recognition

1.1 Beginning ESL students or students being introduced to the specialized terminology of a new topic for the first time may have difficulty even recognizing single words in a stream of speech. Once a certain number of vocabulary items have been introduced and their meanings made clear through the use of real objects or pictures, students can be asked to identify items in a number of ways:

Teacher: (After introducing parts of a plant in science lesson) "Leaf".
Student: (Indicates leaf by pointing to a leaf, by drawing, or by referring to a number on a diagram).

The exercise may be made more difficult by putting the vocabulary item into sentences:

Teacher: "Point to the leaf."
Student: (Points to a leaf).

1.2 This activity can also be used with beginning ESL students to develop sound discrimination by showing the student objects, pictures of objects, or words, which differ by one sound only, e.g. pin-pen, pear-bear, goat-coat and by asking the student to indicate the item named.

Although the goal of this activity is to develop listening comprehension, students should be encouraged to pronounce the new words, read them and copy them into a notebook.

2. Following Directions

2.1 Beginning ESL students, or students being introduced to a topic for the first time, can acquire a great deal of language related to the topic or theme by following directions given by the teacher or a peer tutor.

As soon as beginning ESL students have been introduced to a few basic verbs, nouns, and prepositions; these can be combined into simple directions for students to follow.

Teacher: "Write your name on your answer sheet."

Student: (Performs action)

Numerous expansions can be made as new nouns and verbs are learned and adjectives are added:

Teacher: "Get the blue book from the teacher's table."

Student: (Performs action)

Speaking may or may not be required at this stage. As the student builds up a receptive knowledge of language, spoken language often emerges spontaneously. Once students are comfortable with the vocabulary items and sentence patterns, they can give directions to one another.

2.2 This activity can also be used in a subject area classroom. For example, in a transition science class, after students have been introduced to the necessary vocabulary items, they can follow directions to perform simple experiments.

AIR TAKES UP SPACE[11]

1. Take a large glass container.
2. Half fill the container with water.
3. Place a cork on the surface of the water.
4. Take a glass.
5. Lower the glass, mouth downward, over the cork.
6. Push the mouth of the glass below the surface of the water.

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[11] Adapted from J.P.B. Allen and H.G. Widdowson, English in Physical Science, London: Oxford University Press, 1974, pp. 5-6.

Students working in pairs can be given written directions for simple experiments and take turns directing one another through the procedure.

2.3 This activity can also be used to help students develop an awareness of verb tenses and language functions by requiring them to describe their actions using different tenses appropriate to the situation at hand.

FUNCTION: Describing (Present Tense)
Teacher: "Take a large glass container." "What are you doing?"
Student: "I'm taking a large glass container."

FUNCTION: Anticipating (Future Tense)
Teacher: "Fill the container with water." "What are you going to do?"
Student: "I'm going to fill the container with water."

FUNCTION: Reporting (Past Tense)
Teacher: "Place a cork on the surface of the water."
Student: (Places cork on the surface of the water.)
Teacher: "What have you just done?" or, "What did you do?"
Student: "I've placed the cork on the surface of the water."
or, "I placed the cork on the surface of the water."

3. <u>Listening for Special Cues</u>

Students at low levels of English need practice in listening to meaning in English sentences provided by intonation, stress, negative and question markers.

3.1 Students can listen to a series of statements and yes/no questions, read, or recorded at normal speed and be asked to listen for rising or falling intonation and to tell if each sentence is a statement or a question.

(Hold up a small book.)
This is a book.
Is this book blue?
Is the book big?
The book is small.

3.2 Students can listen to a series of sentences (statements and Wh- questions) and be asked to identify statements and questions.

(Hold up a picture of a woman at work.)
Where is the woman?
The woman is at work.
What is the woman doing?
The woman is working.

3.3 Students can listen to a series of sentences and be asked to identify affirmative or negative forms.

(Hold up a picture of a bus driver.)
This man is a bus driver.
He isn't a pilot.
He is not at home.
The bus driver is at work.

4. Listening Cloze

Cloze procedure, the deletion of words from a reading passage, can easily be adapted as a listening exercise to provide practice in sound discrimination and in using context clues.

4.1 Students at beginning levels of language learning can be given sentences with words missing. They listen to the intact sentences to find the missing word:

School begins at _____.	(8:50)
At _____I usually eat dinner.	(7:30)
The movie starts at _____.	(9:00)
Between 1:00 and _____ the cafeteria is closed.	(1:15)
He works from _____ until 8:30.	(4:45)

4.2 With students at all levels, the ability to derive the meaning of individual words from context can be developed by having students listen to recorded passages, conservations, and newcasts, with words omitted or obscured by static. The tape can be stopped at frequent intervals to allow teacher and students time to discuss appropriate words to fit the context of the sentence.

A variation on this procedure would be to read students a sentence or passage containing an unfamiliar word. Students can identify the unfamiliar word and then use the context heard to predict the meaning of the unfamiliar word. For example:[12]

1. When John approached the edge of the cliff, he guessed that the edge would be strong enough to walk on. But when the ground collapsed beneath his feet, he learned that his assumption had been wrong.

2. The doctor explained the distinction between influenza and pneumonia by outlining the different symptoms of each disease.

[12] From Robert G. Bander, American English Rhetoric, (Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1978), pp. 21-22.

3. To <u>analyze</u> the contents of the drink, Alan examined drops of the liquid under a microscope. This study convinced him that no toxic matter was present.

Students should discuss the meanings of the underlined words, giving reasons for their choices.

5. <u>Sentence Comprehension</u>

In order to derive meaning from whole sentences, students must retain the words in memory long enough to perceive the relationships between parts of the sentence and to use contextual clues to deduce the meanings of unfamiliar words. Practice at this level of comprehension can be provided through a variety of exercises.

5.1 Students can be read a statement and required to select a paraphrase. The statements may include new vocabulary items and language structures. The paraphrases offered may include choices which are factually or gramatically incorrect or words to challenge the students' ability to discriminate between sounds.

The following exercise is related to a review of basic mathematical operations.

Give students an answer sheet similar to the following:

Name _____

1. 35 - 29 =	5. 111 + 17 =
35 + 29 =	111 - 17 =
35 x 29 =	111 x 17 =
2. 280 - 104 =	6. 89 + 14 + 25 =
218 - 104 =	89 x 40 x 25 =
104 - 280 =	89 + 40 + 25 =
3. 84 x 10 =	7. 804 - 906 =
84 - 10 =	906 - 804 =
84 + 10 =	804 + 906 =
4. 98 - 4 =	8. 100 - 25 =
98 x 4 =	25 - 100 =
4 - 98 =	25 x 100 =

Read the following statements at normal conversational speed and instruct the students to underline, and perform the operations named.

1. Add 35 and 29.
2. Subtract 104 from 280.
3. Find the product of 84 and 10.
4. Divide 98 by 4.
5. Multiply 111 by 17.
6. Find the sum of 89,40 and 25.
7. Find the difference between 80[illegible] and 906.
8. Divide 25 into 100.

5.2 Students can listen to statements related to a topic and decide if each statement is true or false.

After an introduction to triangles students could listen to the following sentences and judge them as true or false.

1. A triangle is a plane figure with four sides.	(F)
2. An equilateral triangle has three sides equal.	(T)
3. An equilateral triangle contains a right angle.	(F)
4. An isosceles triangle has three sides equal.	(F)
5. An isosceles triangle has two angles equal.	(T)
6. An equilateral triangle has three angles equal.	(T)
7. A right-angled triangle contains a 90° angle.	(T)
8. The hypotenuse is the side opposite the right angle in a triangle.	(T)
9. The sum of all the angles of a triangle is 360°.	(F)
10. All triangles have 3 angles.	(T)

5.3 Students can listen to questions related to a topic and then choose (or write) the correct answer. After an introduction to the regions of Canada, students might be given the following worksheet.

Name _____

1. Manitoba, British Columbia, Quebec, Ontario, Saskatchewan, Alberta.

2. Saskatchewan, Prince Edward Island, Ontario.

3. Newfoundland, British Columbia, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, Quebec.

4. Quebec, Ontario, New Brunswick.

5. Saskatchewan, Alberta, Newfoundland.

Ask the students the following questions:

1. Which are the Prairie Provinces? Circle the names of three provinces.
2. Circle the name of Canada's largest province.
3. Which are the Atlantic Provinces? Circle the names of the four provinces.
4. Which province has the most French-speaking people?
5. Which province is Canada's major oil producer?

5.4 Students can write sentences from dictation. This is best done as a review activity. Sentences should contain the new vocabulary and language items related to a topic. The sentences from 5.2 could, for example, be used for dictation. To encourage students to hold a whole sentence in short term memory and attempt to grasp its meaning, each sentence should be 1) read at normal speed while students listen, 2) repeated immediately followed by a pause to allow students time to write the sentence and 3) repeated once more to allow students to check their work.

5.5 From time to time, directions for an experiment, an assignment or questions, can be dictated to students rather than given in print. More suggestions for dictation are given on page 52.

6. <u>Listening from Life</u>

Many listening activities can be built around the language which surrounds students every day: announcements, conversations, weather reports, newscasts.

6.1 Students should be asked to paraphrase announcements made over the public address system, or presentations made by visitors to the classroom. They can also demonstrate their understanding by carrying out directions given.

6.2 Understanding the normal conversational speech of their peers is often difficult for students who speak English as a second language. Audio or video tapes can be made of English-speaking students discussing familiar topics: dating, weekend plans, siblings, school. Activities to accompany these taped conversations should focus on various levels of comprehension:

1) What is the conversation about?
2) How many (if an audio-tape is used) speakers are involved?
3) Who are the speakers?
4) What does each speaker think about the topic?
5) Summarize the conversation.

Students may have to listen several times to complete the questions. As a follow-up, students can be given a transcript of the conversation with words or sentences deleted and listen for the exact words used.

Students attention should be drawn to conversational manipulators such as:

Excuse me but . . .	That reminds me . . .
I don't agree.	In my opinion . . .
What if . . .	By the way . . .

6.3 Weather reports provide useful information and opportunity for listening practice. Depending on the level of the students understanding, weather reports of varying complexity can be taped off the radio and analyzed in class.

Students could be asked questions such as:

1) What information is given about local conditions?
2) What is the present temperature?
3) What is the forecast?
4) What other places are mentioned in the forecast? (List on blackboard)
5) What information is given about each location?

6.4 Newscasts are more difficult to understand, and it is best to begin by taping and studying capsule or headline reports. Students can be asked:

1) to count the number of items presented
2) to list, in order, the stories presented
3) to make notes on one or more stories
4) to prepare a brief summary of one or more stories.

If students become interested in a particular news story, subsequent newscasts can be used as a follow-up activity.

7. Listening Passages

7.1 Once students have been introduced to a topic, they can listen to passages read aloud by the teacher or recorded on tape. To guide student listening, a list of questions can be provided before the passage is heard.

The following questionnaire accompanies a passage about stereotypes of Native people in Canadian society and could be used with a unit on multiculturalism, Canadian history, or Native Studies.

Fighting the Stereotypes

1. Native people are often seen as
   a) distinct individuals.
   b) fixed stereotypes.

2. The article discusses _____ stereotypes about Native people.
   a) two. c) six.
   b) four. d) eight.

3. Many Native people are employed in:
   a) regular 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. jobs
   b) seasonal jobs in fishing and trapping
   c) both of the above.

4. The amount of alcohol that Native people drink is:
   a) less than non-Native Canadians.
   b) more than non-Native Canadians.
   c) about the same as non-Native Canadians.

5. Stereotypes are
   a) entirely false.
   b) partly based on fact.
   c) entirely true.

Students should have time to read the questions before listening to the passage, or the questions could be read to the class and discussed.

The passage should then be read, or played to the students and time allowed for students to mark their answers. They should have a chance to listen again to check their answers before discussing them.

FIGHTING THE STEREOTYPE[13]

Most non-Natives grow up convinced of certain things about Indian and Métis people that are simply not true. Unfortunately, many of these people never get to know any Native people. They never learn what Indian and Métis people are really like. Instead, they insist on seeing people of Native ancestry as fixed stereotypes, rather than as distinct individuals.

Here are a few stereotyped statements about Native people. You may have heard some non-Native people saying something like this:

1. "They just live for today, spending their money. They never think about tomorrow. That's why the government has to take care of them."

Native people do plan for the future. In the past few years, many businesses have been started on reserves. This is helping to reduce the high unemployment rate on many reserves. For example, the Otineka Shopping Mall in The Pas, is an Indian-owned and controlled company. As with any business, careful long-range planning is needed. The Otineka Corporation is successful because the Indian businessmen plan carefully for the future.

2. "Native people are lazy."

Many Native people are employed in regular jobs, which may be from 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. Other Indians and Métis work in seasonal jobs. For example, Native commercial fishermen (like non-Native commercial fishermen) are allowed to fish during only certain months of the year, or they might be allowed to catch only a certain amount of fish. During the short summer fishing season, many work from dawn to dusk, seven days a week. At the close of the fishing season, they clean and store their fishing equipment, rest and visit friends. Some Native fishermen then start to prepare for the trapping season.

A Native trapper may travel hundreds of kilometres into the forest in winter, and remain there for months at a time. Usually his work day is twelve or more hours. In the spring, he returns home, sells his furs and relaxes for a month. At the end of this break, he begins to prepare, again, for the summer fishing season.

When are non-Native people more likely to see Native fishermen and trappers, when they are working or when they are taking a short rest?

3. "Most Natives are drunks."

It is true that most Indians and Métis drink - about 70 percent do so. But this is the same percentage as among non-Native Canadians. No one knows for sure, but it is estimated that 10 percent of Native drinkers are alcoholics. (An alcoholic is someone who has lost control of his drinking.)

The percentage of Native alcoholics is estimated to be twice as high as that of non-Native alcoholics. Why should this be so? And why should this 10 percent create a stereotype that most Natives have a severe drinking problem? There are many reasons for this stereotype, but only three will be discussed here.

Most Indian reserves have a law (passed by the band council) that forbids liquor on the reserve. This law forces Indians who want to drink to do so off the reserve rather than in the privacy of their homes, as do most non-Natives. Therefore, many Indians are seen drinking.

Most Native persons have a dark skin and Indian features. They are therefore very noticeable to the general public. Other persons can be identified as being drunk, but rarely by race or national origin.

There are more people with drinking problems among poor people, than among well-off people. When someone has no job, and has therefore many problems, it often seems easier to forget those problems by drinking, than to solve them. Most Natives are poor, and therefore more of them tend to lose control of their drinking. However, the percentage of poor Natives who are alcoholics, when compared with poor non-Natives, is about the same.

4. "Those Indians! Look at them out there demonstrating! And for what! They have everything handed to them. And the rest of Canada has to pay higher taxes to keep them on welfare!"

Some Indians and Métis feel that Natives are not getting their fare share of the wealth of Canada. In addition, they feel that racial prejudice still causes Native people to be refused jobs, to be limited in their choice of housing, and to be cut off socially by non-Natives. Many of the angry Natives are now speaking out strongly. Some have joined to put pressure on the Federal and provincial governments to try to solve social problems.

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[15] Adapted from Fighting The Stereotype, Study Card 43 of Tawow: A Multi-Media Native Study Kit. Book Society of Canada, 1975.

Answers to the questions can then be discussed by the whole class or by students working in pairs or in groups. Students should be expected to recall evidence from the passage to support their answers. The passage can then be presented to reinforce the correct answers.

7.2 Once students are familiar with the main ideas of the passage, they can focus on the language used. Students could, at a subsequent class session, be given a copy of the passage with words deleted (as in a listening cloze p. 44).

Words may be deleted at random or key words only may be eliminated. Read or play the passage to the students all the way through while they follow the written text. Then present the passage one sentence at a time allowing time for students to fill in the missing words. Depending on the difficulty of the passage, each sentence may have to be repeated several times. After students have had a chance to fill in as many answers as possible, present the passage once again in its entirety.

Answers can then be corrected by the whole class or by students working in pairs or small groups to compare their answers. Once students have all written in the correct answers the passage should be presented for a final listening.

This activity can also be used effectively with passages from a variety of sources: content area textbooks, letters and diaries, anecdotes, short stories, and poetry.

8. Dictation

Dictation exercises can take a variety of forms. They may require students to write phrases, whole sentences or paragraphs, or they may involve the writing of numbers or the drawing of diagrams and figures.

8.1 Numbers, especially large ones, are often difficult for students to understand and reproduce. In a beginning ESL class, students may be asked to write addresses and phone numbers from dictation. In a math class, students may occasionally be required to write arithmetic problems or algebraic equations from dictation. In a social studies class, students might be asked to write statistical information and then to use this information as the basis for making comparisons. The following exercise

PART I

PROVINCES	POPULATION	SURFACE AREA (sq.km.)
Alberta		
British Columbia		
Manitoba		
New Brunswick		
Newfoundland		
Nova Scotia		
Ontario		
Prince Edward Island		
Quebec		
Saskatchewan		

PART II

1. _____ _____
2. _____ _____
3. _____ _____
4. _____ _____
5. _____ 6. _____

requires students to write the populations and surface areas of the Canadian provinces. The questions that follow require them to compare numbers and draw inferences based upon them. They might also be asked to complete a graph from the dictated information.

Instruct students to listen carefully to the following information and to complete Part I of the worksheet found on page 53.

1. The population of Alberta is 2,207,856.[14] Write 2,207,856 beside Alberta in the "Population" column. The surface area of Alberta is 661,188 square kilometres. Write 661,188 beside Alberta in the "Surface" column.
2. The population of British Columbia is 2,716,301.
   (Repeat) 2,716,301.
   The surface area of British Columbia is 948,600 square kilometres.
   (Repeat) 948,600.

Continue dictating in the same manner the following information:

3. Manitoba - Pop. 1,017,323 Area 650,090 sq. kilometres
4. New Brunswick - Pop. 688,926 Area 73,437 sq. kilometres
5. Newfoundland - Pop. 561,996 Area 404,517 sq. kilometres
6. Nova Scotia - Pop. 837,789 Area 55,491 sq. kilometres
7. Ontario - Pop. 8,551,733 Area 1,068,587 sq. kilometres
8. P.E.I. - Pop. 121,328 Area 5,657 sq. kilometres
9. Quebec - Pop. 6,377,518 Area 1,540,687 sq. kilometres
10. Saskatchewan - Pop. 957,025 Area 651,903 sq. kilometres

Once students have finished filling in the chart, read the following questions to be answered at the bottom of the sheet. (Part II)

1. Which province has the largest population? Write the name of the province and its population.
2. Which province has the largest surface area? Write the name of the province and its surface area.
3. Which province has the smallest population? Write the name of the province and its population.
4. Which province has the smallest surface area? Write the name of the province and its surface area.
5. List the provinces in order from the largest to the smallest according to population.
6. List the provinces in order from the largest to the smallest according to surface area.

[14] Statistics from Hammond Headline World Atlas, 1982.

Correct Part I by having someone come to the chalkboard or overhead and complete the chart as students in the class dictate the statistics for each province. Depending on the level of the students, Part I may be corrected before attempting Part II. Part II can be corrected in a similar way, or by students working in small groups.

8.2 Dictation of sentences and paragraphs helps students to develop short term memory. The student must hold each sentence in short term memory, long enough to write it down. This is difficult if the student cannot distinguish individual sounds and words, or grasp the meaning of the sentence. Practice with a variety of materials at increasing levels of difficulty can help students to improve aural comprehension.

In this form of dictation the teacher first selects a passage on a topic familiar to the students, and reads the passage in its entirety at normal speed. Students should listen to this first reading without trying to write. The teacher then reads the passage in short segments at normal speed allowing students time to write. The segment length will depend upon the language level of the students but segments should represent natural divisions in the text. The usual procedure is to read one simple sentence or one clause at a time. The points of juncture should be decided in advance. Punctuation may or may not be given. The entire passage is then re-read so that students can check for errors or omissions. Students should then be given a copy of the passage, or referred to the original if the passage has been taken from a text, and allowed to correct their own work.

Done in this manner, students are encouraged to listen to whole sentences for meaning rather than to focus on individual words. Dictation should not be slowed down to unnatural speeds nor should repetitions be given. Care should be taken, however to allow students enough time to write their answers.

9. Note-taking

An important listening skill for secondary students, especially those planning further education, is the ability to listen to extended discourse and pick out the essential information. Students need to be guided in their development of note-taking skills. Students can be given an outline and required to fill in missing information as they listen. Before a lecture presentation, the major points students should note can be organized in outline form. Depending on the level of the students, the outline may be fairly detailed or relatively bare. The outline can be written on the chalkboard or overhead, or duplicated and distributed to students, and should be previewed before the

lecture is presented. Students should be alerted to the information for which they must listen as well as to the key words and phrases which signal important points:

"Let me begin by . . ."

"In the first place . . ."

"In conclusion . . ."

The teacher should take care to follow the same outline in the lecture presentation.

Students might be given the following outline to complete during a lecture presentation on on farming in Manitoba.

FARMING IN MANITOBA

A. Major Farming Regions

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

B. Main Crops

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

C. Markets

1. Domestic
   a) _____
   b) _____
2. Foreign
   a) _____
   b) _____
   c) _____

D. Transportation

1. _____
2. _____

SPEAKING

Many students have had limited opportunities to speak in English. Their experiences with English, both in and out of school, have not adequately prepared them for secondary school. The classroom can provide many formal and informal opportunities to help students extend their thinking skills and improve their oral fluency.

A first step in providing speaking practice is to create a climate in which students feel comfortable and in which their attempts at communication, though limited and marked by errors, are accepted. Students must then be provided with meaningful topics for communication and activities which require them to use language in communicative rather than manipulative ways.

Speaking activities for beginning ESL students should emphasize functional language: the routines for asking and answering basic questions, the appropriate language for a variety of life situations and the language needed to express personal feelings, abilities and aspirations. There is a need for frequent repetition of basic sentence patterns in structured activities, as well as opportunities for free expression.

Speaking activities for students in transition and regular classes in all subject areas should flow from lesson topics. Once concepts have been established and new language introduced, students must have opportunities for discussion in order to clarify and internalize new ideas and related language.

The goal at this stage is fluency and willingness to speak. Correctness of form is less important than communication of the message. Only those errors in grammar and pronunciation which impede communication need to be corrected; others can be noted and later addressed in language lessons. At all stages of language learning, pronunciation, rhythm and intonation can be improved through song, poetry and drama where appropriate, or through modelling and repetition routines.

Providing ample opportunities for oral practice need not entail major modifications to classroom procedures. Teacher directed discussions usually provide practice for only a few students and are best kept to a minimum. Well-designed small group activities provide opportunities for all students to speak in a low anxiety situation. Opportunities for oral practice can be greatly increased by pairing the students with a helper to complete an

assignment, by encouraging them to take part in extra-curricular activities with their peers and by engaging the student in conversation as often as possible.

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP SPEAKING SKILLS

The activities described here are appropriate for students at all levels of fluency. Those listed first are most appropriate for students at low levels of fluency or students being introduced to a new field or topic for the first time; later activities are more appropriate for students at higher levels of speaking proficiency who are already familiar with a particular topic.

Activities chosen to provide speaking practice should be integrated with activities to develop other language skills. Oral language activities involve listening comprehension as well as speaking practice and provide a base for reading and writing activities. When working with LPE students, speaking activities should precede written assignments.

1. Labelling

Students generally begin speaking by naming objects, actions, and feelings. Labelling usually begins spontaneously as vocabulary is introduced to the students through presentations or in direction-following activities.

As soon as students have some receptive knowledge of English, they can engage in communication activities requiring one word answers: answering personal information questions, labelling objects, pictures. Students can, at this stage, practise the sound system of English and work on their own phonological difficulties.

2. Sentence Patterns

Students at early stages of language learning frequently encounter speakers of English outside the classroom in a variety of predictable social situations requiring standard speech routines.

Early speaking experiences should allow students to practise and master politeness formulas for social interactions:

Question: "How are you?" ("How are things?")
Answer: "I'm fine." (not bad, sick, ...)

OR Statement: "Thank you."
Rejoinder: "You're welcome."

OR basic information questions, e.g.
Question: "What's your address?" ("Where do you live?")
Answer: "I live at _____."
Question: "How old are you?"
Answer: "I'm ___ years old."

Students should also learn sentence patterns used in asking for help and in initiating and sustaining conversations with others:

"Excuse me. I'm looking for the _____.
(or Where is the _____?)
"I'm sorry. I didn't understand. Could you please repeat?"
"What time is it?

These are best introduced and practised through dialogue and role plays, and through real interactions in the classroom, e.g. greetings, distributing materials, and filling in forms.

3. Dialogues

In real life, language is most often used in conversations with others. From the beginning stages of language learning, students should be encouraged to engage in dialogues on topics of relevance and interest to them. Initially students may be given a script to follow. As language skills increase, students should be given progressively less guidance until they are able to compose their own dialogues independently. Whatever the origin of the script, students should be encouraged to speak, rather than read, their parts. Memorization is not necessary, but students should look at the script before each utterance, hold the line in short term memory, then look up at their partners and speak the line as naturally as possible. Four kinds of dialogues are described below. Students at higher levels of language proficiency can create original dialogues based on a given situation and engage in other types of role playing activities (see page 65).

3.1 Scripted Dialogues

These are most appropriate for beginning level students learning survival language for life situations, e.g. shopping and banking. These can be organized around functions of language such as greetings, asking for information and asking for help or around vocabulary and structures needed for a specific situation.

Whenever introducing a dialogue, make certain through role play or other means, that the students understand the meaning. Students can practise the dialogue utterances in groups or individually until they are comfortable with them before performing independently.

For example:

GREETINGS

STUDENT A: Hi! How are you?
STUDENT B: I'm fine. Were you sick yesterday?
STUDENT A: I stayed home because I had a headache.
Was there any math homework?
STUDENT B: There was no homework, but there's a test tomorrow.

3.2 Directed Dialogues

Directed dialogues are more challenging linguistically than scripted dialogues because they require the speakers to frame questions and answers in good sentences. They might be used as a follow up to the practice of a scripted dialogue.

Student A: Greet B and ask how he/she is.
Student B: Tell A you're O.K. and ask if he/she was sick yesterday.
Student A: Tell B you stayed home because you had a headache and ask if there was any math homework.
Student B: Tell A there was no homework, but there will be a test tomorrow.

3.3 Dialogue Games

In the examples above, students followed a closely controlled script. By presenting students with options which will change the meaning of the dialogue, students are forced to listen more carefully to their partners in order to make appropriate choices. Students thus engage in practice of a more communicative nature.

After the scene for the dialogue has been set, students are divided into pairs and each member of the pair is given a part of the script. Each part offers a number of choices. The student's choices are governed by the preceding utterance.

PURPOSE[15]

Player A	Player B
Rnd 1- "Could I please speak to Harry?"	Rnd 1- "I'm sorry, but Harry's not here." - "Oh, hi Harry."
Rnd 2- "Could you tell me when he'll be back?" - "That's okay. Don't feel bad about it."	Rnd 2- "He'll be back at 10. Could I take a message?" - "Yes, I can." (But give no information.)
Rnd 3- "Yes. Will you tell him David called, please?" - "Okay. If you want to."	WHO CALLED?_____ WHOM DID HE WANT TO TALK TO?_____

A similar kind of dialogue is organized in a 4 x 4 matrix, so that each dialogue situation has 256 possible variations. Once students are familiar with the meaning of the dialogue statements, they can work in pairs to assemble their own dialogues by combining choices from the matrix.

[15] From Margot C. Kimball and Adrian S. Palmer. "The Dialog Game: A Prototypical Activity For Providing Proper Intake in Formal Instruction" (TESOL Quarterly Vol. 12, No. 1, March 1978) p.27.

THE WEATHER[16]

1.		2.		3.		4.	
A:	Beautiful day, isn't it?	A:	It seems to be clearing up.	A:	It looks like it's going to be sunny.	A:	I think its going to be a nice day.
B:	Yes, it's not like what the radio said at all.	B:	It's such a nice change.	B:	Yes, it's much better than yesterday.	B:	It's certainly a big improvement over yesterday.
A:	I wish it would stay this way for the weekend.	A:	I really don't think this weather will last.	A:	They say we're going to get some rain later.	A:	But it's supposed to get cloudy and windy again this afternoon.
B:	As long as it doesn't snow!	B:	Let's just hope it doesn't get cold again.	B:	Oh, let's just hope it stays warm.	B:	Well, the worst of the winter should be over.

[16] From Michael Ockenden & Timothy Jones, Around Town: Situational Conversation Practise, (Longman, 1982) p.26.

3.4 Semi-scripted Dialogues

Semi-scripted dialogues provide students with as much, or as little, linguistic support as they feel they need and at the same time provide meaningful communicative practice by encouraging students to express their own feelings about a topic. For example, after a lesson on foods and meal planning students might be given the following dialogue to complete orally in pairs.

Student A	Ask B if he/she eats breakfast every day.
Student B	Yes, I usually do.
	No, I never do.
	(Other) . . .

Student A	Ask B when she/he eats her/his main meal of the day.
Student B	I eat my main meal at noon.
	I eat my main meal in the evening.
	(Other) . . .

Student A	Ask B what she/he thinks of Canadian food?
Student B	I really haven't tried much Canadian food.
	Most of it is really good.
	(Other) . . .

4. Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a technique used to elicit language from students, and involves the recall and organization of language related to a topic. For example, before beginning a science lesson on weather with students at low levels of fluency, the teacher may ask the students to name words used to describe weather. Students contribute items from their own experience, clarifying and explaining items to other students where necessary or calling on the teacher for help. The words are listed on the chalkboard and can later be transferred to word cards and illustrated or defined. Words elicited through brainstorming can be used in categorization exercises (e.g. put weather words which describe fair weather and precipitation in separate groups), as a preparation for reading activities or as a reference in writing activities.

Brainstorming can also be used at higher levels whenever students are required to activate their previous knowledge of a topic, e.g. before attempting a reading assignment or before

writing about a given topic. In combination with "Frame Sentences", brainstorming can help students to develop an awareness of the patterns of language and sentence organization.

5. Frame Sentences

In presenting new vocabulary to students and in eliciting language through brainstorming, an attempt should be made to use sentence patterns consistently. The patterns become frame sentences into which new words can be inserted. For example, when asked to brainstorm examples of simple machines students could answer in the frame:

"A _____ is an example of a simple machine."

Work done orally with frame sentences can then be followed by a writing activity using the sentence frames and vocabulary items obtained through brainstorming.

6. Question and Answer Routines

In the beginning ESL class, question and answer routines are largely related to functional language: name, address, and other personal information can be practised in dialogues, interviews, or drills.

With students who already have some proficiency in English, question and answer routines can be used to practice the following:

a) words to describe a process
T: Factor these equations. What are you doing?
S: I'm factoring the equation.

b) verb tense
T: What are you doing in this experiment?
S: We're heating the water in the beaker.
T: What did you do in this experiment?
S: First, we heated the water.
T: What are you supposed to do next?

Practice of this kind can become a regular part of classroom procedure as the teacher circulates among the students as they work. It is important for the teacher to listen to language usage as well as the content. Where the language usage is poor, appropriate structures for responses should be modelled.

7. Role-Play, Drama

Role-play has many applications in a language development program. Beginning ESL students can be encouraged to perform dialogues using functional language, for example, taking the bus, shopping, or calling the doctor.

Students more proficient in the language can use role-play to develop an awareness of appropriate language and non-verbal behaviour in various situations. In the language classroom, students can interpret a scene from a play or story; in a social studies class, students can interpret scenes from history, re-enact trials, or participate in mock parliamentary debates.

In all cases, a similar procedure may be followed:

a) Discuss the situation and review the role of each character.

b) Depending on the language proficiency of the students, give them a prepared script, help the students to develop their own script or give them guidelines for improvisation.

c) Practise the role play in small groups.

d) Present the role plays.

e) Discuss the presentations.

8. Discussion

Discussion activities help students to clarify concepts and vocabulary as they are presented, and later provide opportunities for students to practice newly acquired language in meaningful communicative activities.

a) Whole Class: Discussion activities can involve a whole class in a brainstorming session, a lesson presentation, or a demonstration. Many students, however, have few opportunities to speak and whole class discussions are, for most students, a listening activity, frequently dominated by the teacher or a vocal minority.

b) Small Group: Opportunities for language practice can be increased by dividing students into small groups to discuss a given topic, to brainstorm, to solve a problem, or to complete a task. Small group discussions are most effective when guided by a few lead questions given to a chairperson who is responsible for enlisting participation of all members of the group and reporting back to the class

at the end of the session. As groups carry out their discussions, the teacher can circulate to act as a resource person, answer questions, and monitor the group discussions.

c) Peer-Tutoring: Students can work in pairs to perform a multitude of tasks. Activities are most effective when students have different language backgrounds. Students working in pairs can complete an assignment, correct each other's homework assignments before submitting them to the teacher, practise grammar exercises, or give directions for one another to follow.

9. Oral Presentations

Presenting an oral report, even a brief one, is an uncomfortable experience for many students. A great deal of practice in extended speech can be done in pairs or small groups.

9.1 Timed Speaking

This technique can be used when students are asked to recount an anecdote or to state an opinion. Students prepare their presentations and then present them to several different partners under the constraints of a shrinking time frame. For example, after a weekend or school break students could be asked to tell about an interesting event or activity. Students should be given a few minutes to reflect and plan what they are going to say.

Students are then divided into pairs with partners designated A and B. The "A's" are then given a certain period of time in which to make their presentations. Depending on the level of the students, 2, 3 or 4 minutes may be given. When the time is up, "B's" are then given the same length of time for their presentations. When both partners have spoken, "A's" are asked to stand up and move to a new B partner. The speaking process (A to B, B to A) is then repeated, only within a shorter time frame. For example, if students were given 3 minutes the first time, they would now be given 2 1/2 or 2 minutes, the assumption being that having recounted their stories once their ideas are clearer and their presentations more succinct. Finally, "B's" are asked to stand and move to a third A partner. The students repeat their presentations a third and final time within a further reduced time frame (2 or 1 1/2 minutes).

As a follow up, students could be asked to record or write their presentations.

9.2 Oral Summaries

After hearing or reading a story, or viewing a film students can prepare an oral, rather than a written summary. Because of the difficulty involved in recounting a sequence of events, students frequently need help in preparing the summary and time to practice.

Students should be given a few moments to recall the major events in the story sequence. They can write brief notes or key words on a piece of paper. Giving students a small paper encourages them to keep notes brief.

Students then break into groups of five or six to reconstruct the story. One student in the group begins by recalling the first major event in the story. The next student in the circle then recalls the second, and so forth. Students continue in turn recalling major events from the story. Any student in the group, however, is free to interrupt at any time to correct or question the other speakers or to discuss possible alternatives. Students proceed in this manner until the whole story has been reconstructed.

Students should then be given a few minutes to revise their notes. Using these notes, students can then practise retelling the story from the notes.

In the next class session students break into pairs to present their summaries to a partner who offers constructive criticism concerning content and delivery. Students can then change partners or work in larger groups if more practice is necessary. As a final step, students can present summaries to the whole class or record them on tape for the teacher to evaluate. This technique can also be used as a preparation for written summaries. The communicative aspect of this task can be increased by having each half of the class hear, read or view and summarize a different story. When students meet in pairs to present their summaries, it then becomes crucial that the story be well prepared and clearly presented.

10. Poems, Chants and Songs

At all stages of language learning, poems, chants and songs can add variety and interest, develop an appreciation of the beauty and power of language, and provide practice in the pronunciation of English sounds, rhythm and stress.

Whenever poems, chants and songs are used, they should be integrated into the lesson, be understood by the students and be practised until the students are comfortable with the content and language.

10.1 Rhythmic poems, or jazz chants, introduce students to colloquial language forms and cultural understandings, and lend themselves to repetition and practise. Poems of many kinds can be introduced for dramatic presentation, and later used as models for the students own creative efforts.

The example which follows, "Personal Questions", provides opportunities to discuss the kinds of questions which are acceptable in Canadian society. Students can practise the poem in parts, in groups or in pairs, reinforcing the form and intonation patterns of questions and learning some useful questions to use in conversation.

A BREAK

Where is the gym?
Why do you ask?
Where is the gym?
Just down the hall.
How long is the class?
Why do you ask?
How long is the class?
Just till half past.
Who is the teacher?
Why do you ask?
Who is the teacher?
I think Mr. McMaster.
Where is the lunch room?
Why do you ask?
Where is the lunch room?
Downstairs and turn left.
When is the break?
Why do you ask?
Why do I ask?
Ah, give me a break, a break, a break.

10.2 Songs can also be used in the classroom for listening and speaking practice as well. Songs may be chosen because they relate to a particular area of content, because they illustrate and practise a particular language form or simply because they are pleasing and enjoyable for the students. When songs are introduced, students should be given a

chance to listen first and discuss the content of the song. Students may be given the lyrics intact or with words missing as in a listening cloze (see page 44) and listen for the missing words. Once students are familiar with the tune and the lyrics, they can practise singing along with the record or tape and eventually on their own.

11. Pronunciation

Most second language learners experience some pronunciation problems. When these are severe enough to interfere with communication, a few moments should be spent isolating and practising the problem sound.

The following procedure is suggested:

a) Isolate a problem sound from the student's oral work (reading, speaking), e.g. /th/ as in "that".

b) Help the student to practice making the sound. Use the tape recorder if necessary to be sure the student hears the difference between their approximation and the model. Explain the physiology of the sound if considered helpful.

c) Help the student to practice the problem sound in words. Have the student supply the words if possible, or suggest words to the student. Be sure the student understands the meaning of the words. Try to find words that contain the problem sound in initial, medial and final position, e.g. pig - apple - map.

d) Help the student to practice the words in minimal pairs, e.g. pig - big rip - rib.

e) Help the student to practice the words in short phrases. Pay attention to word stress, i.e. be sure the student puts the accent on the right syllables, e.g. a pretty plant - a pair of pants.

f) Help the student to practice the words in short sentences. Be sure the student puts the accent or the right syllables and uses correct intonation, e.g.

- rising intonation for questions

  Is Pat pretty?

- falling intonation for statements and WH-questions

  Peter pressed a pair of pants.

  What did you pay for the apples?

g) Give the student a copy of the words and sentences to practice independently.

Pronunciation practice is most effective when undertaken in short sessions as the need arises. Students should be expected to strive for intelligible, but not necessarily perfect pronunciation.

12. Speaking Outside the Classroom

Speaking practice need not be limited to the classroom. Students can be given homework assignments which require them to go out and engage in conversation with a variety of people.

12.1 Surveys and Interviews

Students can be sent out to sample opinions of their fellow students on a variety of issues. The information gathered can be used to complete graphs and tables or as the basis for a paragraph. Some possible survey topics might include:

- Eating Habits - Talk to 20 students. Find out how many eat breakfast daily. Ask respondents to sign the back of this paper
- Pre-Election Surveys (school, national, provincial, reserve)
- Preferred Styles in Clothing
- Future Aspirations of Fellow Students
- Should Women Be Allowed to Work Outside the Home.

Students can also be sent out to interview people at greater length to gather information for an assignment on such topics as "Life in Manitoba During the Depression", "A Day on the Reserve", "An Interesting Person", "What it Takes to be a Teacher", "The Immigrant/Refugee Experience".

12.2 Community Contacts

After alerting community services or businesses to the proposed assignment, students can be sent to various locations to find out:

- the procedure for opening a savings account;
- the cost and procedure for sending a registered letter;
- the procedure for obtaining a library card;

Students could be directed to ask for a specific person at each location.

12.3 Intercultural Inquiry

The intercultural inquiry requires students to find information by asking various experts. Respondents sign the students' answer sheets to confirm that the student has indeed gone out and asked for the information.

The following exercise could be given to students in an ethnically mixed community. The same format can be adapted for ESL students learning about Canadian customs, and for students in a particular subject area asking for information from workers in a variety of occupations.

Intercultural Inquiry Exercise

Find people who can answer the following questions. Write the answers to the questions in your own words in the spaces below. Ask the people who answered the questions to sign your paper. NOTE: No helper may answer more than three questions.

QUESTION	ANSWER	SIGNATURE
1. How do you say "thank you" in German?		
2. What colour does the bride wear at a Chinese wedding?		
3. What is a "barong Tagalog"?		
4. What coloure are on the flag of Portugal?		
5. What is "bannock"?		
6. What language is spoken in Kampuchea?		
7. What would you do with "pancit"?		
8. What is a "hoser"?		
9. What are the two main ingredients in "caldo verde"?		
10. When is New Year in Viet Nam?		
11. What kind of cake do you eat at a Canadian wedding?		
12. What is the most important holiday celebrated in India?		
13. What is "lucky money"?		
14. What is a "reserve"?		
15. What is "sipa"?		
16. Who wears a "barrete"?		

READING

In the secondary school, student success depends to a large extent on the student's ability to read a wide range of material independently and with understanding. Reading materials in each subject area are characterized by specialized language (vocabulary and sentence patterns), different modes of expression (formal vs informal) and a variety of organizational patterns (generalizations and examples, comparison and contrast). Students of limited proficiency in English need reading instruction in all subject areas if they are to achieve independence in reading a broad range of educational and literary texts.

Many students experience great difficulty with the regular reading materials in secondary school courses. If the regular class materials are beyond the reading level of the student, suitable simplified materials which have similar content should be used. Where these are not available, students need extensive pre-reading activities before attempting to read the standard text. Whether simplified materials or the regular text are used, students must be helped to develop reading skills and strategies which will eventually enable them to read regular text material independently and a variety of other materials for information and enjoyment.

Reading activities for beginning ESL students are an extension of oral language activities. First reading materials are usually the words and sentences used to label familiar objects and to carry on short conversations which elicit basic information. These basic words and sentences can be re-arranged and combined into many short reading passages for reading practice. Students who are illiterate in any language or who are unfamiliar with the Roman alphabet have to begin by learning the letter-sound correspondences of English and to acquire some basic decoding skills. These are best developed through an eclectic approach: sight words, language experience activities, phonics.

Students need an integrated approach to reading in all subject areas. Unfamiliar concepts and related language need to be introduced orally, visually and/or experientially, and reinforced immediately in print. Students need opportunities to practice the language related to new concepts in listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Once students have been prepared for a reading assignment, their attention needs to be directed to various features of the text. They must be able to identify the major ideas in the passage

and to distinguish them from supporting details and examples. They must also be made aware of the manner in which ideas are organized and presented. They must also attend to surface features of syntax and semantics which provide clues to meaning at the sentence level.

Students at all stages of language proficiency must be guided in their reading to process material at increasingly deeper levels of comprehension. Attention needs to be given to the literal meaning of a passage and to determining exactly what the writer has said. Students must then be helped to go beyond the exact words of the text to draw inferences and to determine what the author implies in the text. Finally, students must be helped to apply new understandings and to relate them to previous knowledge and experience.

Activities to Develop Reading Skills

The activities which follow describe procedures for helping students to develop independent reading comprehension skills. Although the purpose of these activities is to develop reading comprehension, each activity integrates practice in other language skills. Pre-reading activities involve a great deal of oral language practice; follow-up activities frequently involve writing.

The activities are suitable for students at many levels of language proficiency. Section 1, "Language Experience", is most appropriate for students who are just beginning to read in English. Section 2 "Cloze Procedure" can be adapted for students at all levels of reading proficiency as can Sections 3, "Pre-Reading Activities" and 4, "Vocabulary Development Activities", which prepare students for a reading assignment. Activities 5.1 - 5.6 illustrate ways of helping students to read a text or passage at various levels of meaning. Section 6, "Oral Reading", and Section 7, "Follow-up Activities" can be used for skill improvement, to reinforce concepts and language, or to make students aware of patterns of text organization.

The activities are illustrated with short examples from a variety of subject areas. They are intended for use with students in transition level classes. The techniques however, are equally appropriate for use with longer and more difficult reading passages the student is likely to encounter in the regular classroom.

1. Language Experience

The ESL student's initial reading practice usually involves reading vocabulary items related to a topic and recombinations of familiar vocabulary and sentence patterns from the student's oral language. These readings are limited in scope and challenging only to beginning readers of English. In a language experience approach, the students help to prepare relevant and interesting material at levels which they can read. These materials then form a bridge to regular classroom reading materials.

The language experience approach is rooted in student experiences and aural/oral language activities. An experience may be a group activity in which all the students have taken part or something drawn from the students' personal experience. The students discuss their experiences in small groups, in pairs, with the whole class or with the teacher alone. Students are encouraged to tell their stories, or to express their thoughts or opinions, at greater length than is usually expected in question and answer practice.

Each student then dictates a "story" to a writer (the teacher or English-speaking helper) who records it exactly as spoken. The writer then reads the story back to the student who follows the text and makes any desired changes or revisions. At this stage, the writer does not correct grammar or word choice. The goal is to set down on paper language and syntax which the student can read and understand.

The student then takes the story, and re-reads it making further changes or corrections. The student practises reading the story in its finished form and then presents it to classmates, or to the teacher.

As students progress in English, they can begin to take more responsibility for writing and correcting their own stories. The stories can be kept and collected in a folder or notebook to use for reading practice, to share with others and as a record of language progress.

Once students are comfortable reading their own and their classmates' written production, additional materials on similar topics but at higher reading levels may be introduced.

2. Cloze Procedure

Cloze refers to the process of deleting words from a text and requiring students to restore the missing words using context clues.

2.1 Cloze is often used as a testing procedure. Words are deleted at regular intervals, usually every 5th word, and students are required to supply the exact word. Scores of 44% or below indicate frustration level for the student. Scores of 53% or above indicate that the student is able to read the passage independently. Students who score between 44% and 53% are at an instructional level.[18]

To prepare a cloze test, a passage typical of the material students are required to read in class is chosen. The passage should be long enough to allow for approximately 30 deletions, leaving the first and last sentences intact.

ANGLES[19]

In plane geometry an angle is a figure which is formed by two straight lines which meet at a point. The lines of an _1_ are called the sides. _2_ point where they meet _3_ called the vertex.
When _4_ sides of an angle _5_ pependicular to each other, _6_ form a right angle. _7_ right angle has ninety _8_. An angle of less _9_ 90° is an acute _10_ and an angle of _11_ than 90° but less _12_ 180° is an obtuse _13_. An angle of more _14_ 180° is a reflex _15_.
Triangles are often named _16_ to their angles. A _17_ triangle has one right _18_ and two acute angles. _19_ obtuse triangle has one _20_ and two acute angles. An acute triangle has three angles.

Used in this way, cloze tests the student's ability to deal with material at a particular level. Cloze done in this way can also be used as a measure of the readability of a text and can be useful in the selection of materials for a class or a group of students within a class. If students do not score in the instructional range on passages from a particular textbook, it may be necessary to select an alternate text or to provide extensive preparation and guidance through reading activities. To determine the most appropriate text for students, cloze passages from several texts may be administered and the results used to determine text selection.

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18 From John W. Oller, Jr., Language Tests At School, Longman, 1979. p.353.

19 From David Hall and Tim Bowyer, Mathematics Nucleus: English for Science & Technology, Longman, 1980, p. 13.

2.2 Cloze also has many uses as a teaching technique. It can help students to focus on specific features of language and language structure, and can provide opportunities for reasoning and oral language practice.

Prepared cloze exercises with regular deletions can be used to promote the development of reasoning and oral language skills. When regular deletions (every 5th, 7th, nth word) are made, the words deleted are both content words and function words. In example 2.1, every 5th word has been deleted. Students must use their knowledge of syntax (grammar) and context clues to complete the exercise. For example, items numbered 2 and 3 can be found from syntactic clues; items 1 and 5 require close attention to the meaning or context of the sentence.

By deleting function words, e.g. prepositions, articles, conjunctions, students can be made aware of these features of English. The following exercise might be used with students whose native language does not use articles, or uses articles in different ways, to make them aware of the peculiarities of article usage in English.

ANGLES[20]

In plane geometry __1__ angle is __2__ figure which is formed by two straight lines which meet at __3__ point. __4__ lines of __5__ angle are called __6__ sides. __7__ point where they meet is called __8__ vertex.
When __9__ sides of __10__ angle are perpendicular to each other, they form __11__ right angle. __12__ right angle has ninety degrees. __13__ angle of less than 90° is __14__ acute angle and __15__ angle of more than 90° but less than 180° is __16__ obtuse angle. __17__ angle of more than 180° is __18__ reflex angle.
Triangles are often named according to their angles. __19__ right-angled triangle has one right angle and two acute angles. __20__ obtuse triangle has one obtuse and two acute angles. __21__ acute triangle has three acute angles.

By deleting content words, e.g. nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, students are encouraged to focus on context clues and the meanings of words related to a topic being presented in class. In the following passage, the key words related to the topic of angles have been deleted.

ANGLES[21]

In __1__ geometry and angle is a __2__ which is formed by two straight lines which meet at a __3__. The lines of an angle are called the __4__. The point where they meet is called the __5__.
When the sides of an angle are __6__ to each other, they form a right angle. A __7__ angle has ninety degrees. An angle of less than 90° is an __8__ angle, and an angle of more than 90° but less than 180° is an __9__ angle. An angle of more than 180° is a __10__ angle.
Triangles are often named according to their __11__. A right-angled triangle has one __12__ angle and two __13__ angles. An __14__ triangle has one obtuse and two acute angles. An acute triangle has three __15__ angles.

[20] Ibid.
[21] Ibid.

Missing words: reflex, side(s), perpendicular, angle(s), plane, point, right, figure, obtuse, vertex, acute.

It is not necessary to prepare a worksheet for each cloze exercise. The overhead and a prepared transparency of a passage can be used many times for a variety of exercises. To use the transparency for a cloze exercise, number the sentences in the passage, place the transparency on the projector, cover the words to be deleted with small squares of card board and turn on the projector. The students can then record the missing words from each sentence in a notebook or on paper. Correcting the exercise simply involves removing the cardboard squares.

Students can work at cloze exercises alone, but can benefit greatly from working in pairs, reasoning from syntactic and semantic clues to find acceptable answers. A variation on this procedure is to give each pair of students one passage between them and one answer sheet each. The students work together for 5 minutes, then change partners. (Confusion can be minimized by designating each member of the pair A or B. After 5 minutes the A's can be told to stay at their places with the passage, while the B's get up and find a new partner. Later the B's stay put while the A's change partners.) Each new pair then compares answers already recorded and continues with the exercise.

Students should be encouraged to stop and discuss answers which differ, offering reasons for their choices. Students should be made aware of the possibility that both answers may be acceptable in the given context. After another 5 minutes, students can change partners again. This procedure continues until the exercise is complete.

By working with a partner, students have opportunities to communicate in a relaxed atmosphere, to clarify their own ideas through talk and to learn from others. By working with a number of different partners, students have the opportunity to encounter many different ways of thinking about language and to establish friendships with other students in the class. Stronger students help the weaker ones, who are able to complete the exercise more successfully than they would if working alone.

3. Pre-Reading Activities

Reading is an active process in which the reader sets up expectations about the text to be read, considers the text in the light of background knowledge and has expectations

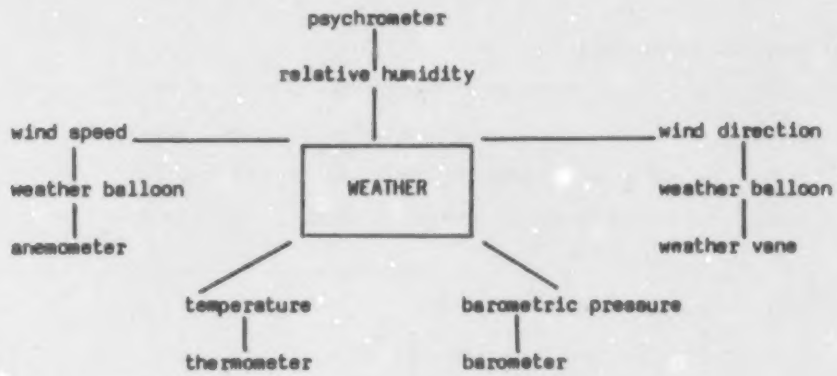
challenged or confirmed. For this process to take place, the reader must be familiar with the topic of the reading and comfortable with the language of the text.

The following activities help to prepare students for the concepts and language they will encounter in their reading, motivate the students to attempt the reading assignment, and help the teacher to assess the students conceptual and language background related to a topic. In this approach, the reading assignment becomes a follow-up to classroom activities rather than the students' introduction to new material. Through pre-reading preparation and active reading, students are also more likely to remember what they have read.

3.1 Structured Overviews

Words and ideas can be introduced through a graphic presentation which shows the relationship between key ideas and introduces words for important concepts.

The following diagram could be used to introduce students to a reading about weather and instruments used for measuring various aspects of weather.

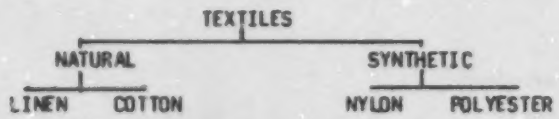


Structured overviews can be constructed by the teacher and presented tc the students, or by the teacher and students working together and brainstorming words related to a topic.

To construct the overview shown above, students could listen to a weather report and then recall various aspects of weather mentioned. These are then listed on the chalkboard in a manner pre-determined by the teacher. The names of instruments for measuring these aspects of weather can be elicited from students or found in books and added to the diagram. This activity can give the teacher some idea of students' previous knowledge about weather and their familiarity with related language, and indicate if background information and language are needed before proceeding with the unit on weather.

Another method of drawing up a structural overview would be to give small groups of students word cards with weather words on them and a skeleton framework for arranging the words. Each group would then construct an overview to show the relationships between the words. The products of the various groups could then be compared and discussed.

Graphic overviews can also take other forms including outlines, branching or tree diagrams, or sketches.



Whichever design is chosen, the graphic overview should illustrate the major concepts, to be derived from the reading and present the key vocabulary.

3.2 Anticipation Guides

Anticipation guides encourage students to think about the content of a passage before actually reading it. The anticipation guide should arouse student interest, provoke discussion and give a purpose to the students' reading.

Before reading a passage on nutrition, students could be given the exercise below.

Anticipation Guide to "What Foods Do You Need?"

Check the statements which you believe to be correct. Be prepared to defend your choices.

_____ The body needs nutrients from six main groups in order to stay healthy.

_____ We get proteins, vitamins and minerals from meat, fish and eggs.

_____ Fats are bad for the human body.

_____ Everyone should drink five or six glasses of water a day.

_____ There are four major food groups from which we must eat.

_____ Peanut butter is a good substitute for meat.

_____ Adults do not need to drink milk.

_____ People in different countries eat different foods so people in some countries do not have a healthy diet.

Students should then compare and discuss their answers to the "Anticipation Guide". They are then ready to approach the reading with some background knowledge and with some questions to be answered.

Once they have completed the reading, the answers to the "Anticipation Guide" should be reconsidered in the light of new information. This particular reading should lead to a wider discussion of food in different cultures.

Anticipation guides are useful with readings on topics about which students have some previous knowledge, and especially with those about which they have some preconceived ideas or misconceptions. When these preconceived notions are challenged, students focus more carefully on the information presented in the text.

WHAT FOODS DO YOU NEED?[22]

Nutrition experts have studied foods and what they do for the human body. They have discovered that there are six main groups of nutrients that the body needs. They are proteins, vitamins, minerals, carbohydrates, fats, and water. You should understand what each of these groups do for your body.

Foods containing proteins build and maintain the body's tissues. Proteins are found in meat, fish, eggs, cheese, chicken, grains, nuts, beans, and peas.

Vitamins, which get their name from a Latin word meaning "life", help our bodies grow, make us healthy, and keep us strong. Most of the vitamins your body needs can be gotten from chickens, fish, eggs, vegetables, fresh fruit, breads, and cereals.

Minerals provide building materials for bones, teeth, hair, skin, muscle tissue, and blood. The minerals that you should eat are found in milk, cheese, green vegetables, meat, eggs, beans, nuts, bread, cereals, salt and seafoods.

Carbohydrates and fats are important because they provide the energy your body needs to keep warm and do work. Carbohydrates are contained in corn, wheat, rice, potatoes, dried beans, and dried peas. Foods that have sugar in them - candy, fruits, cereals, and some vegetables - supply carbohydrates, too. Fats are supplied by butter, cream, peanut oil, corn oil, and olive oil.

Water is necessary to control your body temperature and to supply some needed minerals. Although water is available in milk, coffee, tea, soup, and other common foods, everyone should drink five or six glasses of water every day.

Different foods are served from country to country, but a good diet for everyone each day should contain the same nutrients.

Everyone should eat four or more servings of fruits and vegetables every day. Fruit and fruit juices are convenient and healthful between-meal snacks.

Two or more servings of meat, fish, or eggs should be included in the foods you choose. Dried beans, dried peas, nuts, or peanut butter might be eaten when meat is not available.

Everyone - even adults - should include some milk or milk products in their diet every day. Nutrition experts say that young children need three cups of milk every day; that teen-agers should drink four cups a day; and that most adults should drink two cups a day. Cheese, cream sauces, or ice cream might be substituted for milk.

Four or more servings of bread, cereal, rice, or spaghetti should be eaten every day.

Young people should learn to choose foods that include the six necessary nutrients. Their bodies will become stronger and healthier, and they will enjoy longer, happier lives.

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[22] Adapted from English For a Changing World, Book 4, Scott Foresman & Co., 1978. p. 82.

3.3 Questioning

Questioning can help to set the stage for reading comprehension. Teacher-generated questions can focus the students' attention on the important concepts contained in a reading passage and help to stimulate and develop the students' background on the topic.

The following exercise centres around a short reading about the food chain. The same procedures, however can be used with longer readings.

The questions below are questions that might be asked to prepare students for the reading. The questions are at three levels of comprehension in order to encourage the students to look beyond the surface features of the text for deeper meanings.

Literal Questions

1. What do owls eat? Are owls carnivorous or herbivorous?
2. What do moles eat? Are moles carnivorous or herbivorous?
3. What do earthworms and insects eat?

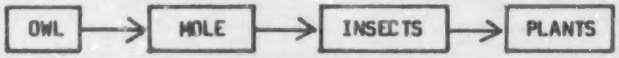
Interpretive Questions

1. What would happen to owls in a dry season if all the vegetation died?
2. What will happen to animals if their source of food is destroyed?

Applied Questions

1. What do you think is meant by a "food chain"?
2. What would happen to people if suddenly all vegetation were to disappear off the face of the earth?

As students answer the literal questions, a diagram of the food chain described in the reading can be constructed on the chalkboard. Illustrations can be drawn or pictures taped to the chalkboard to illustrate the food chain.



Students should be encouraged to describe the food chain in their own words using the language experience approach. Students can then approach the reading with a prior understanding of the concept of a food chain and will find their expectations confirmed in the reading. Also they will be exposed to more sophisticated language for ideas which they have already tried to express.

FOOD CHAINS[23]

Food chains provide a clear illustration of the dependence of one organism on another. Animals cannot make their own food and so their diet is largely restricted to certain kinds of plants or other animals. An owl, for example, is carnivorous, eating moles and other small animals. The moles in their turn, eat earthworms and small insects which may eat plants.

Thus, the owl depends indirectly on the insects and even on the plants. A very dry year may cause a lot of vegetation to die and so there would be a decline in the insect population. This would make it hard for small animals to find food, and their numbers would also be reduced, leaving the owl, at the top of the food chain, hungry too. If a farmer kills off insects with pesticide, or smokes out and kills the moles on his land, the owl is again the sufferer. Of course, most animals are adaptable. The owl may not starve if deprived of its normal source of food. It may adapt and change its diet, but this change will probably upset another food chain.

It is not always necessary for the teacher to pose the pre-reading questions. Once students are accustomed to the kinds of questions asked before reading a passage, students should be encouraged, once the topic of a reading has been introduced, to ask the questions themselves.

4. Vocabulary Development Activities

These activities may be used before reading selections are introduced to increase understanding of the text. These activities can also be used for reinforcement and review of vocabulary items during and after reading.

4.1 Word Cards and Sentence Strips

Many students need reinforcement whenever new vocabulary is introduced. A multidimensional approach is best when new words are presented: experiences, real objects, examples related to the students' experiences, pictures, definitions and the printed word.

Index cards can be used to prepare word cards. Each new word introduced should be printed on a card. A picture or definition should be placed on another index card of a different color. Students can prepare the cards themselves. It is useful to have several sets per class, or at least enough for small groups of students in the classroom to use at the same time. These cards may be used in many ways.

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23 From A.R. Bolitho, and P.L. Sandler, Study English for Science. Longman 1980, p. 53.

A. Matching

Students may work in pairs or form teams for this activity. One team takes the word cards; the other team takes the definitions or picture cards.

Variation 1: The team with the word cards reads one word at a time and the other team provides the correct definitions. The cards are laid out on the table and read and checked by both teams. A correct answer scores 1 point for the team which provided the definition.

Variation 2: The team with the definition cards reads one definition at a time and the other team provides the correct word. The "game" continues as above.

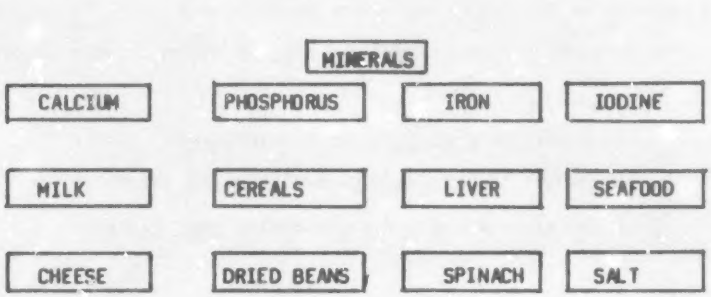
Variation 3: A student working alone or with a volunteer can match the word cards with their definitions.

B. Categorizing

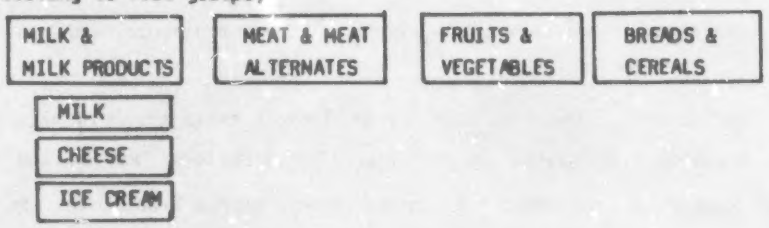
Students can be given word cards from a number of units and categorize them according to different attributes or linguistic features. The teacher or the students may decide on the the categories.

C. Diagraming

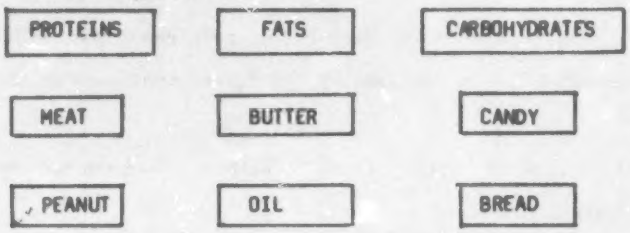
At the end of a reading, or unit of work, students can be given the word cards which represent key concepts and then arrange them into a pattern to represent the relationship between key concepts. For example, after a lesson on nutrition students might arrange word cards in the following manner.



To continue the nutrition example from "b" above, students could classify the word cards naming foods according to food groups,



or according to nutrients provided.



4.2 Definition from Context

Several strategies can be used to help students derive the meaning of unfamiliar words from context.

One method is to select new words from a reading, list them on the chalkboard and ask the students to write definitions for the words. For example, the following words from the reading on "Food Chains" (page 84) could be listed:

1. dependence
2. carnivorous
3. pesticide

Students should predict at probable meanings using knowledge of word forms and discuss their predictions. As students will probably not be able to define all three, provide sentences in which the words are used and ask them to try again to write a definition of each word. These sentences may be taken from the passage or written by the teacher.

1. A child's <u>dependence</u> on others is very great.
2. An owl is <u>carnivorous</u>, eating moles and other small animals.
3. A farmer kills off insects with <u>pesticides</u>.

Students again offer guesses about the meanings of the words and explain how they arrived at their definitions. Students can then turn to the dictionary to verify their definitions.

This strategy helps students to realize that it is important to look beyond the

unfamiliar word to the context for clues to meaning. Through discussion students can be encouraged to look for syntactic and semantic clues in predicting the meaning of unfamiliar words and develop the thinking processes involved in arriving at definitions from context clues.

4.3 Possible Sentences

When dealing with a text on a topic about which students are likely to have some previous knowledge such as the nutrition reading, (page 82) students can be given a list of familiar and unfamiliar words from the passage and asked to construct sentences about the topic using two or more words from the list. For example, the following list may generate the sentences below it.

nutrients	diet
nutrition	substitute
expert	snack
healthful	serving

A snack cannot substitute for a good meal.

A healthful diet provides many nutrients.

An expert in nutrition can plan a good diet.

Don't eat more than one serving if you are on a diet.

Students then read the passage and evaluate their sentences, accepting those that are correct and correcting any inaccuracies.

5. Guiding Student Reading

The activities which follow illustrate ways of guiding students in their reading of various materials. It is assumed that students have been introduced to necessary concepts and vocabulary before engaging in the following activities.

5.1 DRTA (Directed Reading-Thinking Activity)

DRTA is a way of guiding student reading. The teacher encourages the students to interact with the text and with each other. Before reading, students set purposes for reading. They make predictions based on the topic of the reading, hypothesize about the content of the passage and give reasons for their predictions. As they read through the passage together, hypotheses are confirmed or rejected, questions posed about the context and further predictions made.

The following brief example suggests a way of using the passage "Lasers - Technology for the Future".

LASERS - TECHNOLOGY FOR THE FUTURE[23]

1. Lasers are devices which produce pure, intense beams of light or radiation. When they were first invented, in 1960, nobody quite knew what to do with them. Though they seemed likely to be useful, they were for a while called 'a solution waiting for a problem'. Modern technology develops so quickly, however, that many applications for the power of the laser have now been found.

2. The beam of a laser can be focused very precisely, which means that it can be used in tasks as simple as cutting cloth and piercing leather and as delicate and sensitive as destroying a single cell of living tissue. This means that it has great potential in the treatment of cancer.

3. The strength of the laser is such that it can pierce very hard substances such as diamond and metals. It is now used in precision welding. A CO_2 gas laser can cut through brick or granite at a temperature of 1,500°C.

4. Given such strength, it is hardly surprising that many people see the laser as a death ray, and its military potential is being exploited, particularly in guiding missiles and in range-finding for gunners. Its accuracy as a means of measurement has helped scientists to calculate the speed of light more precisely than ever before (186,282.397 mps) and, with the help of laser reflectors placed on the moon by American astronauts, to determine its exact distance from earth. Lasers are also now used to measure the size of pollutant particles in the air. Surgeons performing operations have found the laser useful as a surgical knife, able to make bloodless incisions, and it is proving invaluable in delicate eye surgery, particularly on the retina. Skin blemishes can also be removed by means of lasers.

5. There are some areas into which laser technology is only just beginning to reach. There are suggestions that laser beams may ultimately replace cables in telecommunications. It will also be used more and more extensively as a stylus to play video discs. A Russian scientist has carried out tests which suggest that lasers could be used to clear up oil slicks on the surface of the sea, though it is not yet clear how well this would work. They are also being used for the first time in flight simulation in the training of pilots.

6. One of the most interesting uses is in the world of newspapers. The Los Angeles Times is 'written' by a helium/neon laser and 'proof-read' by an argon laser. Finally, a whole new area of optics is being opened by lasers. They are needed to illuminate holograms or three-dimensional pictures, the possibilities of which are endless.

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[23] Adapted from from A.R. Bolitho and P.L. Sandler, Study English for Science. Longman, 1980, pp. 95-96.

Before beginning the activity, divide the reading into logical units. The reading on lasers has been divided into four sections - the first paragraph, the second and third paragraphs, the fourth paragraph, the fifth and sixth paragraphs. Each section will be dealt with separately in the DRTA.

The teacher introduces the title of the reading "Lasers - Technology of the Future" and asks students to suggest some questions the title raises in their minds and which might be answered by the reading. Some possible questions are:

What are lasers?

How will lasers be used in the future?

These questions are recorded by the teacher (or student recorder) on the chalk board or on chart paper. As this is done, the teacher should question the soundness and the grammaticality of the questions, by asking, "Is this a reasonable question?", "Is it worded clearly and correctly?" Once the questions have been elicited, students are given the passage and instructed to read the first paragraph, looking for answers to their own questions.

When all students have finished reading, the questions are reviewed and answered, if possible, from the reading. Students can volunteer answers and should be encouraged to refer back to the passage to justify their answers. Questions answered can be checked off, while others are retained for future reference. For example, the first paragraph of the reading answers the first and second questions, but not the third. Students should then be asked for other questions suggested by the first paragraph. These might include questions about the content of the first paragraph, "What is radiation?", "Why were lasers invented?" or questions which may be answered by further reading, "How are lasers used?"

The question list will now look like this:

What are lasers?

Do lasers exist now?

How will lasers be used in the future?

What is radiation?

Why were lasers invented?

How are lasers used?

Students are then directed to read the next two paragraphs looking for answers to the new questions and to the questions still unanswered from the initial part of the exercise. When students have finished reading, the activity continues as before. Students look for answers in the passage, add new questions, read further, and discuss until the reading is complete.

At the end of the reading, questions and answers are reviewed. Questions still unanswered from the reading can be discussed and perhaps answered from the experience of some students or the teacher, or can become the basis for further reading and research.

The emphasis in DRTA is on encouraging the students to think about a passage and to find answers to their own questions in the printed word. The teacher acts as a recorder and as a catalyst in the process, encouraging the students to ask good questions and directing discussion by asking students to justify their hypotheses and their answers.

5.2 Reciprocal Questioning (ReQuest)

Reciprocal questioning is a way of preparing students for a reading assignment, encouraging students to read thoughtfully and helping students to form good questions in terms of content and form. The teacher is actively involved in the "ReQuest" activity both answering students' questions and encouraging them to think further by posing more questions.

After a reading selection has been introduced, students and teacher read silently a pre-determined portion of the text (one line, one paragraph, one page). Books are then closed and the students ask the teacher questions about the text. When students have run out of questions, the teacher takes a turn in asking students questions.

Students and teacher should be prepared to support their answers by referring to the text, or to relevant background information. Students and teacher may also look back at the text to find or confirm answers to difficult questions.

Students initially may look only at surface features of the text and ask only factual, recall questions or questions about vocabulary. They should be encouraged to look more deeply into the meaning of the text and to ask higher level questions. Teacher questions should serve as a model of the kinds of questions students are expected to ask and encourage a deeper analysis of the text.

Once students are sufficiently familiar with the content and form of the passage they should be encouraged to predict the content of the remainder of the passage. Once a direction and purpose for reading have been set, students can complete the reading independently.

5.3 Guided Reading Procedure

This activity encourages students to read carefully and accurately for main ideas and details, and to organize this information in a coherent format. The teacher is actively involved in helping students to recall, verify and organize important points from the reading passage. The reading passage chosen for this exercise should be related to a topic being dealt with in the classroom and short enough to be read and studied in one class period. The example below is based on the reading "Canadian Forests."

CANADIAN FORESTS[24]

As Canadians we should be interested in our forests. Canada's forests are among the greatest in the world. Not only do they provide us with countless products, but they give us great pleasure as well.

We use forest products every day of the year and sometimes every minute of the day. The paper on which these words are printed comes from a tree. Your pencil, your desk, your floor, your school, and much of your home come from trees. Rayon clothes come from trees. Hockey sticks, baseball bats, lacrosse sticks, and other sporting goods come from trees. Many foods have tree products in them.

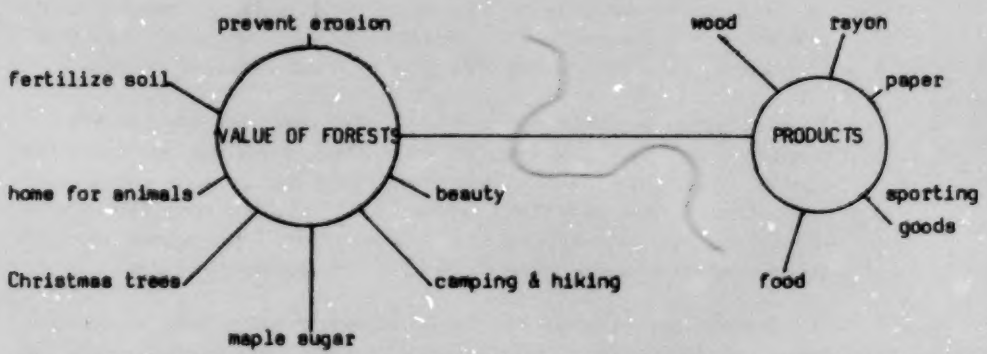
Our forests are valuable for other reasons besides wood production. Trees prevent the soil from eroding. Without topsoil nothing could grow. Trees also fertilize the soil they live in. Some animals can only live in the forest. Christmas trees come from the forests. Maple sugar is another valuable forest product. Our forests are valuable because we can enjoy their beauty as campers, hikers or sightseers.

[24] From Mary Lou Stirling and Catherine Maggs, Target Reading: Gold Book. Doubleday Canada, 1983. p.20.

The students are directed to read the passage silently and to remember as much as possible. When all students have finished reading the passage, they are asked to close their books and to recall information from the reading. This information is then recorded, as it is offered by the students, on the chalkboard or overhead by the teacher or recorder. Students may question the accuracy of information offered by classmates. The teacher should act as a mediator in these discussions, but should not provide the correct answers.

Once the list has been completed, students are directed to re-read the article to verify the information listed and to look for additional information which might have been overlooked in the first reading.

When the list has been revised, students should then be helped to organize the information in outline or diagram form. The teacher should have a format in mind and guide the students in selecting main points and supporting details. The information in the reading on "Canadian Forests" could be represented graphically as follows:



After students are familiar with the "Guided Reading Procedure", students can work in pairs or small groups to draw up their own outlines and diagrams. These can then be combined into a class effort.

The diagram or outline then becomes the basis for discussion in which students can contribute information from their own experience and previous knowledge of the topic. Follow-up activities could include a short quiz or the preparation of an oral or written summary of the article.

5.4 Reading Guides

Students can be given various kinds of guides to help them with a reading assignment. The first example, the "Three-Level Reading Guide", is best used with shorter passages, essays or poems. The second example is more appropriate for a longer reading assignment, such as textbooks, a chapter, or several chapters from a novel.

A. Three-Level Reading Guides

Three-level reading guides are given to students to encourage them to look beyond the literal meaning of the text for inferred ideas and to relate these ideas to their own experiences. The guide should focus only on the most important ideas of the text at each level. After being introduced to the vocabulary and major ideas of a text, students are given the guide to preview. Students then read the passage and respond to the statements in the guide.

The Three-Level Reading Guide below accompanies the short fable about the sun and the wind.

A FABLE

I Check the statements that say what the author says. Be prepared to explain your choices by referring directly to the story.

_____ The Sun and the Wind were quarrelling about the strength of a traveller.
_____ The Wind blew off the traveller's hat, scarf and coat.
_____ The Sun made the man take off all his clothes.

II Check the statements that say what the author meant. Be prepared to explain your choices by referring to the story.

_____ The Wind used force to try to make the traveller take off his hat, scarf and coat.
_____ The Sun used persuasion to win the argument.
_____ The Wind was stronger than the Sun.

III a. Check the statements which show the lessons this fable teaches us. Which lesson do you think is the most important? Under line it. Be prepared to explain your choices by referring to the story and to your own experiences.

_____ Hold on to your hat when the wind blows.
_____ Persuasion is more powerful than force.
_____ It is important to dress appropriately for the weather.

b. Choose the best title for the story.

_____ The Sun and the Wind
_____ The Power of Force
_____ The Power of Persuasion

A FABLE

The Wind and the Sun were having an argument about which one was stronger. Suddenly they saw a traveller coming down the road. He was wearing a hat, a scarf and an overcoat because it was a very cool spring day.

"Perhaps that man can help us decide who is right," said the Sun.

"How?" asked the Wind.

"Let's try to make him take off his hat, scarf and overcoat. Whoever can get the traveller to take them off faster will be the winner. You begin."

So the Sun went behind a cloud and the Wind began to blow as hard as he could upon the poor traveller. The traveller quickly reached for his hat, tied his scarf and buttoned his coat. The Wind blew harder and harder, but the man held onto his hat and wrapped his coat tightly around himself. At last the Wind had to give up.

Then the Sun came out. He began to shine a little, and then just a little more. As the man felt the warmth of the Sun, he took off his hat, untied his scarf and unbuttoned his coat. As the man continued his journey, the Sun shone more and more. Finally the man stopped and took off his scarf and his coat, and stood on the bank of a river.

Then the Sun shone more and more. The man looked at the cool water in the river. Then he put his hat, his scarf and his coat on a rock, took off the rest of his clothes and went for a swim.

Once students have completed the three-level guide, they can work in small groups to discuss their responses. Through discussion, students have opportunities for speaking practice. They are also encouraged to look more carefully at the form and meaning of the text to justify their own points of view and to understand those of others.

B. Guide to Longer Readings

When students are given a longer passage to read, a guide can help students to focus their attention on important ideas and provide insight into the structure of the text. The following guide might be given to accompany the short story "The Secret Life of Walter Mitty" by James Thurber which is the subject of the Sample Literature Lesson and is reproduced on pages 148 to 150 of this handbook.

Guide to "The Secret Life of Walter Mitty"

Walter Mitty is a day-dreamer. In this story, he drifts from fantasy to reality and back again. Pay careful attention to the changes from dream to reality and back again, and to the causes of those changes.

Read the story one section at a time as indicated below. Stop at the end of each section and find answers to the questions asked. It is <u>not</u> necessary to write the answers.

Paragraph 1

This is Walter Mitty's first fantasy. Where is he? Try to see the scene in your mind.

Paragraphs 2 - 4

In this section, Walter Mitty is brought back to reality. How? Who is with him? What do you think his daily life is really like?

Paragraphs 5 - 6

This is Walter Mitty's second fantasy. Where is he? Try to imagine the scene as you read. What started this fantasy? How would you describe "Dr. Mitty"?

Paragraphs 7 - 9

Back to reality. What brought him back this time? What adjectives would you use to describe Walter Mitty in these three paragraphs?

Paragraph 10

This is Walter Mitty's third fantasy. Where is he now? Try to visualize the scene. What triggered this fantasy? What adjectives could be used to describe Mitty?

Paragraphs 11 - 12

Walter Mitty returns to reality. What brought him back? Where is he and what is he doing?

Paragraphs 13 - 14

Another daydream. Try to imagine the scene. What triggered this fantasy? What adjectives would you use to describe Mitty here?

Paragraph 15

Who brings Walter Mitty back to reality?

Paragraph 16

Where is Walter Mitty - reality or fantasy? How do you know?

5.5 Intermix

The intermix technique encourages students to work co-operatively to complete a long reading assignment. Intermix works best with a reading passage which can be divided into two or more independent parts.

A textbook chapter could, for example, be divided into 4 parts - A, B, C, and D. After engaging in pre-reading activities to build or to activate background knowledge of the topic, students are divided into working groups of four with each student designated A, B, C, or D. Each member of the group is assigned the corresponding part of the reading. Students are instructed to read their material silently, looking for main points and summarizing them in order to present them orally to the other members of the group. (In a variation of this activity, all the A's, B's, C's, D's could work together to prepare a summary of their section.)

Once students have completed the readings, within each group A pairs off with B, and C with D. Partners take turns presenting their oral summaries to one another. The whole group then re-assembles and members present their oral summaries a second time.

Students are then assigned the reading of the entire chapter. Each student has read one section thoroughly and received a thoughtful preview of the remaining sections.

This approach encourages students to read for the central ideas of a passage, to review them immediately and to explain them clearly to an interested listener. It also provides students with practice in listening and in speaking.

5.6 Study Reading - PQRST (Preview, Question, Read, Summarize, Test)

In order to prepare students for independent learning, a systematic approach to reading assignments, such as P-Q-R-S-T, should be introduced. Although ultimately an independent reading technique, students need many opportunities for guided practice in all subject areas before achieving proficiency in its use.

The letters P-Q-R-S-T stand for five steps to follow in approaching a reading assignment, such as a texbook chapter or journal article.

Step One - Preview

Students should skim the chapter, noting major headings, illustrations and key words in bold face type. At this stage, students should get an overview of the content and organization of the chapter. Students should be encouraged to relate the major topics in the reading of their previous knowledge. After reviewing the whole reading selection, students approach one section at a time.

Step Two - Question

At this stage, students formulate questions to guide their reading. After looking at the sub-heading, students should make up 2 or 3 questions which they would expect to find answered in the section.

Step Three - Read

Having activated previous knowledge of a topic, made some predictions about the content and set a purpose for reading, students read the section looking for answers to the questions set in Step Two, and noting additional information presented. They should also pay close attention to illustrations and tables and relate these to the written text.

Step Four - Summarize

At the end of each section of the reading, students should stop and review the important information presented attempting to summarize it in their own words. They can also make brief notes for later reference and review.

Step Five - Test

Having completed the reading of the entire selection, students should test their understanding of the passage by answering the prepared questions at the end of the chapter or the questions set by the teacher. Students should be encouraged to scan the material to find answers which they cannot recall.

6. Oral Reading

The practice and presentation of an oral reading selection encourages students to attend to the meaning and form of a text, provides opportunities for pronunciation and speaking practice, builds confidence and adds variety and enjoyment to classroom activities. Oral reading is a special skill which requires concentration on sound-symbol correspondence, phrasing and pronunciation and requires that the reader be familiar with the content and form of a passage. Oral reading, therefore, is not recommended as an initial reading activity. The procedures described below can be used as practice and follow-up activities.

6.1 Radio Reading

Radio reading provides the readers with intensive practice of a short reading selection. It provides the listeners with a polished reading for aural comprehension practice.

In radio reading, readers present their reading selections in the manner of a radio announcer, the ultimate goal being to communicate the content of the reading as clearly as possible to the listeners. Each reader is assigned a reading selection to prepare. These selections may be portions of a longer reading or readings from different sources related to a particular topic. The length and difficulty of the passages chosen will depend upon the language level of the students.

The students are instructed to read their passages silently for meaning, checking the meanings of unfamiliar words, and then to practice reading the passage aloud observing pauses and providing emphasis so that meaning will be clear to the listener. The reader should also prepare 1 or 2 questions about the main points of the passage.

When students are ready to read, each reader in turn presents the prepared reading. (The listeners may request a re-reading if the original reading is not satisfactory.) The reader then asks the listeners the questions on the passage and discussion may follow. The listeners should then be asked to make a short oral summation of the main ideas of the passage. The reading is considered successful if the message has in fact been communicated to the listeners through oral reading.

Radio Reading may be done as a whole class activity, but proceeds more quickly and is less threatening for the readers if done in small groups. For example, a class could be divided into groups of 5 or 6, and each student in the group given a different reading. This reduces the number of reading selections needed and allows the students with the same passages to work together to prepare the oral reading.

6.2 Reader's Theatre

Reader's Theatre provides a co-operative experience as students work together to prepare a dramatic reading of a story, news article, or textbook passage.

Reader's Theatre is best done with a familiar, well-liked story or reading. Stories with several speaking characters are particularly good because they require a greater number of participants.

Students are divided into groups with approximately the same number of members as there are characters in the story. Students study the story, determine the number of speaking parts (usually the number of characters plus one or two narrators) and prepare a script for the performance. The script can be written out in longhand or, if students can be given photocopies of the reading, parts can be indicated by underlining in various colours. The script must include all the words from the original text, including "he said" and "she asked," which are assigned to the narrator.

Students in their groups then audition, choose parts and practice the dramatic reading of the passage. Attention should be given to mood, staging, inflection, and gestures.

For the final performance, students are seated on chairs or high stools facing the audience. The readers focus their gaze above the heads of the audience. When not speaking, performers may lower their heads or turn their backs to the audience. The action of the piece is communicated through the reading, gestures and facial expressions of the performers, although simple props may be added.

6.3 Reading Tables, Graphs and Figures

Students in the content area classroom frequently encounter charts, tables, graphs and figures of various kinds in their textbooks. Not only are these illustrations a valuable source of information once students have learned to interpret them; they can also be used for oral reading practice of numbers and sentence patterns which occur in certain subject areas.

For example, after studying the table below, students could interpret the information orally.

T. How much wood was produced in Manitoba in 1976?
S. One million, seven hundred and forty-two thousand cubic metres of wood were produced in Manitoba in 1976.

FOREST PRODUCTION FOR CANADIAN PROVINCES AND TERRITORIES, 1976[25]

Province or Territory	Forest production in Thousands of Cubic Metres
Newfoundland	2345
Prince Edward Island	164
Nova Scotia	3455
New Brunswick	7479
Quebec	29062
Ontario	17879
Manitoba	1742
Saskatchewan	2866
Alberta	5628
British Columbia	69528
Yukon and Northwest Territories	127
TOTAL - Canada	140275

7. Follow-Up Activities

Once students have been prepared for a reading assignment and guided through the actual reading of the text, follow-up activities help to consolidate new learning and to re-inforce the major concepts and language of the text. The follow-up activities should require students to use all four language skills. For example, students can listen to related readings, speak in group discussions, reading related materials and write questions and answers, outlines, paragraphs, and summaries.

[25] From Mary Lou Stirling and Catherine Maggs, Target Reading: Gold Book. Doubleday Canada, 1983. p.20.

The following activities are suggested as a culmination to a reading assignment. The activities chosen will be determined by the nature of the material read and the level of the students.

7.1 Answering Questions.

Once students are familiar with the content of the text they can answer the questions in the book or questions prepared by the teacher. If questions from the book are used, it is important to preview them and to select those which focus on the main ideas of the text, and which represent all levels of comprehension. Students can answer the questions orally in pairs or small groups. As a follow-up, students could then write the answers to the questions.

7.2 Reaction Guides

The anticipation guides or 3-level reading guides can be used as the basis for follow-up discussions after a passage has been read. A separate reaction guide can also be prepared.

7.3 Concept Guides

Once students have completed a reading assignment, concept guides help to identify, organize and reinforce major concepts presented in the reading and then to organize those concepts.

The following Concept Guide helps students to identify the major concepts in the reading "CHANGING MATTER" and then to organize the major concepts around the three states of matter-solid, liquid and gas.

CHANGING MATTER[26]

There are many different kinds of matter. But all matter is made up of molecules. Molecules are always moving. The chair you are sitting on may seem to be still, but it is made up of billions of moving molecules.

Matter is found in three **states**, or forms: **solid, liquid** and **gas**. Solids have a shape of their own. You can change the shape of a solid by breaking, bending, or cutting it, but it will always take up the same amount of space. The molecules in a solid are packed very close together. They do not have very much room to move.

Liquids do not have a shape of their own. They take the shape of their container. Like solids, liquids always take up the same amount of space. The molecules in a liquid are not so close together as those in a solid. They have more room to move.

Like liquids, gases have no shape of their own. Gases do not always take up the same amount of space. The air that fills a balloon can spread throughout a room. Gas molecules are much farther apart and have more room to move than the molecules of a liquid.

Some solid matter when heated can be changed from a solid to a liquid to a gas. Heat makes the molecules move faster and farther apart. When you take an ice cube out of the fridge and answer the phone, you may come back to find a puddle of water. The warm air in the room made the molecules of the solid ice move faster and change to a liquid. Have you ever left water boiling on the stove and come back to find the pot burning with no water in it? The heat made the liquid water molecules move faster and change to gas. The gas escaped into the air.

[26] Ibid., p. 76.

CONCEPT GUIDE TO "CHANGING MATTER"

Check the statements which you believe are true based on your reading, class presentations and your own experience. Correct the statements which are not accurate.

1.___ All matter is made of molecules which are constantly moving.

2.___ Molecules in a solid are so close together they can not move.

3.___ When a solid is heated, it becomes a liquid.

4.___ When a gas is heated, it becomes a solid.

5.___ The molecules in a liquid have more room to move than molecules in a solid.

6.___ Solids, liquids and gases always take up the same amount of space.

7.___ Molecules of a gas can move apart to fill any space.

8.___ Heating causes molecules to move more slowly.

9.___ Cooling can change a gas to a liquid.

10.___ Cooling can change a liquid to a solid.

Categorize the statements above into one or more of the three columns below.

SOLID	LIQUID	GAS

7.4 Summaries

Students can summarize the main ideas in material read in the form of a diagram or an outline. Students can be guided in the production of an outline by being given a framework to complete. Once a diagram or outline has been constructed students can produce oral or written summaries in one or more paragraphs (see Speaking Activity page 67 and Writing Activity page 125).

7.5 Pattern Guides

Once students are familiar with the content of a passage, they can be helped to become aware of the manner in which the material is organized.

The most basic organizational pattern of which students need to become aware is the pattern of main idea and supporting details which subsumes all other organizational patterns.

Students can engage in a brief notetaking exercise on paragraphs from a reading which clearly illustrate this pattern. The following paragraph can be represented in note form to highlight the main idea and supporting details.

> A good weather report tells five things. It predicts what the temperature will be. It tells whether the sky will be cloudy or clear and whether there will be any rain or snow. A weather report also gives the direction of the wind and the strength of the wind.[27]

Information in a good weather report

- temperature
- sky condition
- precipitation
- wind direction
- wind speed

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[27] Adapted from Vivian Horn, Composition Steps, Newbury House, 1977, p. 72.

The first few times this exercise is done, the paragraph should be reproduced on the chalkboard or overhead. Students should be asked to identify main idea, and the topic sentence should be underlined. Supporting details should be identified.

Attention should be drawn to signal words such as "five" in the topic sentence of the above paragraph which prepares the reader to look for five details.

Once students are able to distinguish main idea and supporting details, there are four major organizational patterns of which students should be made aware:

listing
chronological order
comparison and contrast
cause and effect.

Pattern guides can be used to make students aware of these organizational patterns.

A. Listing

The paragraph on weather in 7.5 is an example of organization based on listing or enumeration. A main idea is stated, followed by a list of supporting details. The details are not listed in any particular order, but simply provided to clarify or support the topic sentence.

A similar organizational pattern is used in the following paragraph.

SUPERSTITIONS[28]

People in ancient times had strange ideas and superstitions, and many people still believe in them today. There are many kinds of superstitions. One kind is about things that bring bad luck. For example, if you spill salt or break a mirror, you will have bad luck. It is bad luck to walk under a ladder or open an umbrella in the house. It is also bad luck to kill a spider. Many people believe that the number 13 is unlucky. Friday the 13th is considered an especially unlucky day. It is surprising how many ideas like these have lasted until these modern times.

[28] From Vivian Horn, Composition Steps, Newbury House, 1977, p. 138.

To help students recognize the difference between main idea and examples, the following guide might be given.

SUPERSTITIONS

What is the main idea of the paragraph?

_____ People today still have many ancient superstitions.

_____ The number 13 is considered unlucky by many people.

_____ Many things bring bad luck.

Give 6 examples from the paragraph to support the main idea.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____

By reviewing the guide in class students can see that although examples make up most of the paragraph, the essential information is contained in one sentence. They should be made aware of the word cues which signal the introduction of examples, "for example", "for instance", and those which signal a listing of details to support main idea, "also", "in addition", "further".

B. Chronological Order

Chronological organization is frequently found in literary or historical texts and in directions and procedures in science and mathematics texts, and is signalled by the presence of dates and cue words such as "first", "then", "before", "after", "next", "finally".

Students can be given a pattern guide to help them become aware of the chronological ordering in the short reading below.

VOYAGES OF THE NORSEMEN[29]

Sometime during the seventh century a group of Celtic people from Ireland discovered Iceland. They settled there. Two centuries later Norsemen from Scandinavia drove the Celts out of Iceland and settled there themselves. A few years later, in 874, the Norsemen discovered Greenland.

A century later, a Norseman from Iceland named Eric the Red explored the coast of Greenland. In 986, some Norsemen settled there. Later in the same year, a Norseman named Bjarni Herjulfson was blown off course when he was sailing from Iceland to Greenland. He saw North America at a spot he called Vineland. We think that what Herjulfson called Vineland was probably Newfoundland.

A few years after Herjulfson's voyage, about the year 1000, Leif Ericson, a son of Eric the Red, visited Vineland. In 1025, Norsemen under Thorfin Karlsefni tried unsuccessfully to settle in Vineland. Norsemen from Greenland visited Vineland from time to time to cut wood, but they never settled there.

"GUIDE TO VOYAGES OF THE NORSEMEN"

Complete the following history of Norse exploration:

7th century (600-699 A.D.)	1.	_____
9th century (800-899 A.D.)	2.	_____
	3.	(874) _____
10th century (900-999 A.D.)	4.	_____
	5.	(986) _____
	6.	(986) _____
11th century (1000-1099 A.D.)	7.	(1000) _____
	8.	(1025) _____

C. Comparison and Contrast

Many readings point out similarities and differences between events, people, and things. Students can be made aware of this pattern of organization by learning to recognize the signal words ("..., but ..." "although...,..." "on the one hand ... on the other hand," "however," "while ..., ..." "similarly ..." "unlike ..." and "like ...") and by completing pattern guides related to readings in which comparison or contrast is the major pattern of organization.

[29] From Mary Lou Stirling and Catherine Maggs, Target Reading: Gold Book, Doubleday Canada, 1983, p. 48.

A pattern guide can help students to find the comparisons and contrasts in the short reading "Automobiles".

AUTOMOBILES[30]

The automobile used to be a luxury in Canada. Only people who were a little richer than the average person owned a car. Today many people feel that they cannot do without a car. Lots of families in Canada have two motor vehicles.

The same is not true in Europe, however. The average European does not think of a car the way most Canadians do. Many Europeans do not own cars. They use buses, subways, trains, or bicycles to travel. It is not unusual in a European city to see long lines of bicycles driven by people of all ages. Even if a European does own a car, he keeps it for ten years or more. Most Canadians trade their motor vehicles every two or three years.

GUIDE TO "AUTOMOBILES"

This article compares Canadian and European attitudes to cars. Use the chart below to summarize the comparisons. Fill in the blanks with information from the reading.

CANADA	EUROPE
Cars are considered a necessity.	Cars are considered a _____.
_____.	Many do not own cars.
Most people travel by car.	People travel by _____.
_____.	Car owners keep their cars
_____.	10 years or more.

D. Cause and Effect

Many readings in science and social studies examine events and their causes. Signal words such as "because", "since", "as a result of", "consequently", and "thus" point out cause and effect relationships. Students can be made aware of cause and effect relationships in their readings by learning to look for signal words and completing a pattern guide similiar to the one which accompanies the short reading "THE BUFFALO".

[30] Ibid, p.44.

THE BUFFALO[31]

Before 1900 the western part of North America was covered with buffalo. There were so many buffalo on the western prairies that explorers reported some great herds took whole days to pass. Even as late as 1871, one herd was said to be 160 km long and 40 km wide!

It was the settlement of the West that killed off these huge herds. The buffalo is so powerful that it has few natural enemies other than humans with guns.

When the railways were being built in the 1860's and 1870's, people shot thousands of buffalo to feed the railway gangs. Thousands of others were killed for their hides, which were used to make buffalo robes. Later, people went out and shot hundreds of thousands just for "sport". Tales are told of thousands shot just for their tongues, which people liked to eat. It took only three years to kill the last one and a half million buffalo.

Today, there are only about three thousand of the sixty to one hundred million buffalo that once lived on the western prairies. These buffalo are protected by law. Only in this way has it been possible to save this great beast from being wiped out.

GUIDE TO "THE BUFFALO"

At one time 100,000,000 buffalo lived on the Canadian prairies. Today, there are about 3,000. Read the article carefully and find 5 reasons to explain the small number of buffalo found in Canada today.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

The examples above suggest ways of making students aware of organizational patterns in short readings. Similar exercises can be devised for longer and more difficult readings in which one pattern predominates. Frequently, several patterns are combined in a single reading: chronological accounts and events may be compared or contrasted, or causes of a particular effect may be given in the form of a list. Only the major patterns however, should be selected as the focus of a pattern guide.

[31] Adapted from Mary Lou Stirling and Catherine Maggs, Target Reading: Gold Book, Doubleday Canada, 1983, p. 62.

WRITING

The secondary student needs to learn to write for a variety of purposes. Outside of school, the student is required to fill out forms and applications and to write letters. In school, the student is required to fill out a variety of forms, answer questions, write paragraphs, essays, and reports in many different subject areas. The student needs to develop facility and confidence in writing through practice related to the listening, speaking and reading activities which accompany topics presented in the classroom.

Depending on the academic and cultural background of the students, writing skills must be developed at a variety of levels. Beginning ESL students who speak a language which does not use the Roman alphabet need to learn to form letters and to develop facility in handwriting. All beginning ESL students need practice in writing individual words in order to develop a repertoire of sight words, as well as an awareness of the phonetic and spelling conventions of English.

Many students lack familiarity with the sentence structure of English and need practice in organizing their thoughts and words according to the sentence patterns common to a subject area. They need to develop an awareness of the location and function of various parts of the sentence, the variety of English sentence patterns and of the differences between spoken and written English.

As soon as students are able to combine words into sentences, attention needs to be given to the organization of paragraphs and longer compositions. Paragraph organization in any language is a convention of culture. An important part of learning to write in English is becoming aware of and mastering the standard forms of English discourse, beginning with the paragraph.

A well-organized paragraph may consist of simple sentences using content from different subject areas. Even students with very limited English can practise paragraph forms that list details or relate anecdotes to support a topic sentence. More proficient writers can practise paragraphs which state generalizations supported by examples, compare and contrast, or show cause and effect relationships. Practice with these organizational patterns can help students to recognize these forms in their reading and contribute to the growth of reading skills.

Once students have become aware of basic paragraph structure, i.e. introduction, logical development, conclusion, they can begin to produce longer written forms. Students can be shown how to expand a topic sentence into an introductory paragraph, to develop the topic in several paragraphs, and to expand the concluding statement into a summary paragraph or comment in order to produce longer compositions, essays and reports.

Writing skill development for each subject area or topic requires a step-by-step approach. Students need guidance in writing the words, sentences, and the particular kinds of paragraphs and longer compositions required by each subject area. Note-taking and outlining can also be introduced as part of reading and writing practice.

Activities to Develop Writing Skills

The activities which follow are intended to give students practice in writing at various levels: letter, word, sentence, paragraph, and longer compositions. This hierarchy however, does not represent stages in writing development. For example, it is not necessary for students to have mastered English sentence structure before attempting paragraphs; nor is it necessary for students to have mastered paragraph form before attempting longer compositions. Students at low levels of proficiency may concentrate on word and sentence practice, as may students being introduced to a new and unfamiliar topic; students at higher levels of proficiency may concentrate on more complex written forms.

Writing activities should be integrated with the listening, speaking and reading activities related to a topic. Students should not be expected to produce original written work without adequate preparation through practice in listening, speaking and reading within the context of a lesson.

Students should be familiar with basic paragraph organization before attempting longer compositions. Students who have difficulty producing longer written forms (see pages 129 - 131) should be given practice in paragraph development (see pages 121 - 129).

1. **Mechanics**

1.1 **Handwriting.**

Some students come to school writing a different alphabet. Occasionally students are illiterate in their native language. These students need a systematic approach to handwriting instruction before more extensive writing practice can proceed. It is recommended that these students learn cursive script from the start while at the same time learning to recognize the upper and lower case print forms of the letters of the Roman alphabet. A set of matching cards can help in this process.[32]

Ex. A

Ex. B

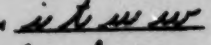
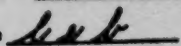
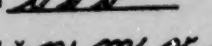
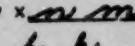
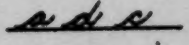
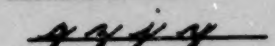
Ex. C

Ex. D

Sets of lower case (Ex. A) and upper case (Ex. B) letters can be prepared so that students can match:

1) lower case print and script forms (Ex. A)
2) upper case print and script forms (Ex. B)
3) lower and upper case print forms (Ex. C)
4) lower and upper case script forms (Ex. D)

Students should be taught correct letter formation as they will often adopt a "drawn" form based on the appearance of a letter and conventions of first language writing patterns, e.g. right to left progression. Students also need to be made aware of the importance of size, alignment, start and spacing of letters. As letters are introduced they should be combined into words familiar to the student for writing practice. In teaching handwriting, an elementary handwriting manual may be consulted. The lower case letters are usually introduced in the following sequence:

1) i t u w 
2) l e b 
3) n m v x 
4) h k 
5) a d c 
6) g z j y 
7) f g
8) o p r s

Upper case letters are then introduced.

[32] Adapted from Judy E. Winn, Bell Olsen, Communication Starters and Other Activities For The ESL Classroom. (The Alemany Press, 1977). pp. 101-103.

1.2 Capitalization and Punctuation

The English language conventions of capitalization and punctuation need to be taught. Students from a language which does not use the Roman alphabet may be unfamiliar with the use of upper and lower case letters; students from other language backgrounds may use capitals and punctuation marks in different ways. Particular attention should be given to:

1) the use of capitals in titles, for days of the week, months of the year, adjectives of nationality, academic disciplines
2) the use of commas, question marks and quotation marks.

The teaching of capitalization and punctuation is most effective when integrated with written practice of words and sentences related to a lesson topic.

1.3 Spelling

Beginning ESL students are best introduced to the conventions of English spelling through practice in writing words and sentences from current lessons. Using the students' working vocabulary written words, some of the more reliable phonetic generalizations can be taught as an aid to pronunciation and spelling. At all stages students can be assigned the vocabulary words from a lesson or reading for independent study and asked to reproduce them on a test or quiz. Spelling words should be drawn from classroom lessons and activities, and should be familiar to the students. Students should not be expected to learn long lists of unfamiliar words from spellers or word lists.

2. Words

Writing individual words reinforces vocabulary and helps the beginning ESL student to become aware of the conventions of English spelling and to develop confidence in writing. This type of practice is most common in the beginning stages of language learning when the student needs to acquire a broad vocabulary base for communication and further learning. At all times, the student's attention should be focused on the meaning of the words being written.

2.1 Copying

After being introduced to a number of vocabulary items related to a topic such as clothing, students can be asked to draw the items and copy the names off a master list. After learning the days of the week or months of the year, students could be given a page from an engagement calendar and asked to copy the date in full on each square.

2.2 Labelling

Students can be given a page with pictures of familiar vocabulary items such as fruits or vegetables, a blank calendar page, or a diagram and asked to label it.

2.3 Lists

Students can also practise writing words by making lists of various kinds:

List all the fruits you like to eat.

List all the clothing that you own.

Make a meal plan for the next week.

Plan a party. Make a list of guests to invite. Prepare a shopping list.

List 10 things you can see at a hardware store.

List 10 jobs you would like to have.

The lists should be a natural follow-up to a class lesson or activity.

2.4 Application Forms

Once students have learned to recognize and respond to basic information questions, e.g. "Where do you live?" "When were you born?" they can receive additional oral and written practice by filling out a variety of application forms. Forms can be drawn up by the teacher or real ones obtained from the school office, public library, bank, or post office.

In addition to spelling and writing practice, applications provide students with practice in reading and following directions, and familiarize them with some of the common conventions of filling in forms: neatness, use of block letters, ways of writing dates.

3. Writing Sentences

Sentence writing should be introduced as soon as students can speak whole sentences and are able to write the words required. Practice in sentence writing continues throughout secondary school, even after paragraphs and longer compositions have been introduced with exercises increasing in complexity as new and more difficult sentence patterns are introduced.

3.1 Frame Sentences

Frame sentences can be used in conjunction with brainstorming as a beginning writing activity. During the course of a lesson on foods and nutrition, students could brainstorm a list of favourite foods. Sentence frames similar to the following can be introduced:

_____ is a source of protein.
_____ is a source of carbohydrates.

3.2 Substitution Tables

Substitution tables provide students with all the necessary components of a sentence which can be combined to make logical statements. In the beginning ESL classroom, tables can be built up using information about the students in the classroom.

José Chinh Mui Arra	is wearing a	blue red green brown	sweater. pants. shoes. socks.

Students choose one item from each column to produce a factually and grammatically correct sentence.

A similar format can be adopted in the content area classroom. For example, in a geography class a substitution table could be used to help students describe geographical location using latitude and longitude.

Manila Lisbon Winnipeg	is located at	___	degrees	east west	longitude

and	___	degrees	north south	latitude .

3.3 Questions & Answers

Answering simple questions can give students practice in sentence writing. Students should be encouraged to transform questions into complete sentences.

Q. Why did the water freeze?

A. The water froze because the temperature was lowered.

They should also be made aware of the limitations of this approach to questions.

Q. What did you do next?

A. We did do [sic] heated the water.

In this case students should be made aware of the word "do" in the question and the need to replace it with an action verb in the answer. They should also be made aware of the presence of the past tense "did" marker and recognize it as a signal to answer in past tense.

In order to discourage students from copying answers from a reading passage, students should be given time to practice answering questions orally in their own words before writing answers. When a question and answer assignment is given, students should be given class time to practice asking and answering the questions in pairs or with a helper. Once students are confident that they can answer the questions in their own words, the answers can be written.

3.4 Sentence Combining

Sentence length and the coordination and subordination of ideas in the sentence are accepted as measures of linguistic maturity. Students can be helped to improve thinking skills and sentence writing ability through guided practice in sentence combining.

Sentence combining practice can be introduced to students at all levels of language proficiency, and is most effective when the content of the sentences to be combined is drawn from current lesson topics or readings.

Practice for students at low levels of fluency may be organized according to the following sequence. Students should practise one sentence combining pattern at a time. Note that many other patterns are possible. Cue words for sentence combinations may be given as necessary.

1. Adjective and Adverbs

The water was heated to boiling.

The water was cold.

The water was in the beaker.

o The cold water in the beaker was heated to boiling.

Helen Keller learned to speak.

She learned slowly.

She learned with help from her teacher.

o Helen Keller slowly learned to speak with help from her teacher.

2. Coordination with and, but, or, yet

Manitoba is a prairie province.

Saskatchewan is a prairie province.

Alberta is a prairie province.

o Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta are prairie provinces.

The salt was added.

The water was boiled.

o The salt was added and the water was boiled.

The weather is cold.

The students must come to school.

o The weather is cold, but the students must come to school.

He could break down the door.

He could go in through the window.

o He could break down the door or go in through the window.

Other forms such as "both . . . and", "either . . . or", "neither . . . nor" can also be introduced.

3. Adverb Clauses - Subordination with <u>because</u>, <u>if</u>, <u>when</u>, <u>before</u>, <u>after</u>, <u>since</u>, <u>where</u>.

Canada became a country.

The British North America Act was signed.

o Canada became a country <u>when</u> the British North America Act was signed.

Newfoundland joined Canada in 1949.

Canada then had ten provinces.

o <u>After</u> Newfoundland joined Canada in 1949, Canada then had ten provinces.

Free land was promised to homesteaders.

Many new settlers came to Manitoba.

o Many new settlers came to Manitoba <u>because</u> free land was promised to homesteaders.

4. Adjective (Relative) Clauses - Subordination with <u>who</u>, <u>whom</u>, <u>which</u>, <u>that</u>, <u>whose</u>.

Ottawa is the capital of Canada.

Ottawa is located in Ontario.

o Ottawa, <u>which</u> is the capital of Canada, is located in Ontario.

A political party will win the most seats in an election.

The political party forms the government.

o The political party <u>that</u> wins the most seats in an election will form the government.

Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone.

He was a Canadian.

o Alexander Graham Bell, <u>who</u> was a Canadian, invented the telephone.

5. Noun Clauses - Reported Speech and Embedded Questions

Note that a change of subject and verb tense is required in reported speech.

Mrs. Mitty said something.

"You're driving too fast."

o Mrs. Mitty said that he was driving too fast.

Mrs. Mitty asked him a question.

"Why don't you wear your gloves?"

o Mrs. Mitty asked him why he didn't wear his gloves.

In sentence combining for students at higher levels of proficiency, many patterns can be practised in a single exercise. The following exercise accompanies the short story "The Secret Life of Walter Mitty".

Sentence Combining Exercise to Accompany
"The Secret Life of Walter Mitty"

1. Walter Mitty was a man.
   He led a very ordinary life.
   He longed for excitement.
   He longed for adventure.

2. He imagined many things.
   He was a navy commander.
   He was a surgeon.
   He was a pilot.
   He was a criminal.
   He was a condemned man.

3. It was in one of his fantasies.
   Dr. Walter Mitty was a brilliant surgeon.
   He saved the life of Wellington MacMillan.
   Wellington MacMillan was a millionaire banker.

4. He was always daydreaming.
   Walter Mitty had trouble remembering things.
   His wife told him to do many things.

5. Mrs. Mitty thought about her husband.
   He was tense.
   He needed to see a doctor.

4. Introduction to Paragraphs

A paragraph written in English is developed according to a linear pattern. The main idea is introduced in a topic sentence. Details which support the topic sentence follow and may be summed up in a concluding sentence. This pattern of organization may not be familiar to students who read and write a language which follows a different pattern of paragraph organization.

As soon as students are able to read paragraphs and write simple sentences, exercises to make students aware of the pattern of English paragraph development can be introduced. Once this organizational pattern has been understood and internalized, it is easily transferred to longer written forms: essays, reports, longer compositions.

4.1 Fill in the Blanks

The language used in experiences and classroom exercises can be combined into paragraphs for reading, and later writing practice. Paragraphs should be clearly organized and the student's attention should be drawn to the organization of the paragraph as well as to the appearance of the paragraph on the page: margin, indentation, sequence of sentences.

The paragraph can be reproduced on the board, a ditto sheet or on an overhead transparency with words deleted. Students can then copy the paragraph filling in the missing words and at the same time observing the superficial conventions of paragraph writing.

The sample paragraph below could be constructed following a simple science experiment.

A Condensation Experiment

This experiment shows that air __1__ moisture. First we took a beaker and filled it with __2__. Then we added __3__ to the water in the beaker. After a __4__ minutes, __5__ of water formed on the __6__ of the beaker. This water came from the __7__. The __8__ water in the beaker caused __9__ from the air to __10__ on the outside of the beaker.

4.2 Answering Questions

Another way of helping students to write a paragraph is to provide a series of questions which, when answered in complete sentences, form a well organized paragraph.

By answering the following questions in complete sentences and arranging them in paragraph form, students at low levels of proficiency should be able to produce a simple paragraph about their native countries. Students' attention should be drawn to the organization of the paragraph as well as to the mechanics of paragraph writing: margins, indentation, capitals.

Answer in complete sentences.

Write the sentences in paragraph form.

> What is your native country? Where is it located? Is it beautiful? Does it have mountains, plains, rivers, and lakes? Is it a hot country or a cold country? What is its population? What language do the people speak?

4.3 Notetaking and Outlining

Even students at low levels of language proficiency can be introduced to note-taking based on short paragraphs and helped to make outlines for their own paragraphs.

A. Personal Experience

From the paragraph below, students can identify main idea and supporting details, and record them in the form of a simple outline.

> John is a very good student. He does his homework every night. His notebook is neat. He is always able to answer correctly when the teacher calls on him. He usually gets a good mark on tests.[33]

[33] Adapted from Vivian Horn, Composition Steps. Newbury House, 1977. p.101.

MAIN IDEA	SUPPORTING DETAILS
John, a good student	- does homework every night - notebook is neat - answers correctly - gets good marks on tests

Students can then generate their own outline through class and small group discussion. Until students are comfortable with the outline form, topics should focus on personal experiences: qualities of a good student/teacher; how to maintain good health/physical fitness; impressions of Canada/Canadians.

These brief outlines then form the basis of the student's own paragraphs. The main idea from the outline is transformed into a topic sentence, with the supporting details becoming supporting sentences. A concluding sentence may also be added.

B. Factual Material

The above note-taking/outlining exercise can be used in other subject areas as an introduction to research skills. Students are given short, clearly organized paragraphs on the topic being studied and helped to identify main ideas and supporting details, which are then recorded in note form. These notes can then be used as the basis for original paragraphs, as study helps, or as part of a research assignment.

Students might be given the following paragraphs about Thomas Edison[34] for note-taking practice.

> Thomas A. Edison was an American inventor. He was born in Ohio in 1847. Throughout his life he worked in various technical and scientific fields. He became very successful and famous. He is especially famous for inventing the electric light bulb.

> The ideas of Thomas A. Edison, who was one of the world's great inventors, affect almost every part of our lives. When we pick up a telephone, we are using some of his ideas. When we turn on an electric light, we are benefitting by his ideas. When we put a record on a phonograph or watch a movie, we are enjoying the results of his ideas. His inventions had an important effect on the whole field of electricity.

[34] Adapted from Vivian Horn, Composition Steps. Newbury House, 1977. p.127.

Once the notes are complete, students can combine the information from the two sets of notes into an outline for an original paragraph on Thomas Edison. The original paragraphs should be collected or set aside, and the students encouraged to work from their notes only, an important first step in developing good research habits.

5. Narration

While students are learning the basic organization of the expository paragraph, they can also be introduced to longer compositions by writing narratives which require several paragraphs. The importance of sequence and chronological order can also be emphasized.

5.1 Personal experience

Personal experience should be the starting point for early practice in narrative writing. Students can write about an experience shared by the class, for example a field trip, or an event in their own past: a family trip, an amusing incident or anecdote, an autobiography.

Before beginning to write, students should be encouraged to make a list of important points, to arrange them in chronological order, and to decide how the material will be divided into paragraphs. Introductory and concluding paragraphs should then be added.

This process should be demonstrated first through a group brainstorming session related to a common experience. When students are familiar with the process, independent assignments can be undertaken. Once students have prepared their notes for writing, these can be used as the basis for oral story-telling practice in pairs (see page 66) or small groups as a prelude to the writing of the story.

5.2 Friendly Letters

Friendly letters often contain narrative material. To give students an audience for their writing, narration can be written as part of a letter addressed to the teacher, a classmate or a pen friend. Students might write about themselves, their holiday experiences or school activities.

Students should be introduced to letter form - heading, greeting, closing - if they are not already familiar with it. They should also be encouraged to add other information and enquiries to their letters to make them true vehicles of communication.

The letters prepared in a letter writing assignment should receive a reply. This can be accomplished by having each student draw the name of another student in the class and address a letter to that person who must then reply. Each student thus writes a letter, and writes and receives a reply.

Exchanges between classes within the same school or with classes in another school can also be arranged. Letters to students in other classes and schools will begin with a letter of introduction containing biographical information and can continue with letters containing narration of events or exposition of ideas.

5.3 Summaries

Narration in the secondary school most often occurs in summaries of material read. Even students at low levels of proficiency can be helped to write summaries of stories they have read in class or independently.

Once students have read a story and discussed it thoroughly, they should be sufficiently familiar with the story and the language contained in it to retell it in their own words. Summary writing should be preceded by oral practice as suggested on page 67. Students can then prepare notes and write their summaries. They should be encouraged to write their summaries without referring to the original story.

6. Writing Different Kinds of Paragraphs

Once students are familiar with the basic organization of the English expository paragraph, various kinds of paragraph development should be introduced. Students can become familiar with these forms through their reading (see pp. 104 to 109) and learn to produce them in their own writing. The ability to recognize and produce paragraphs and longer compositions which follow different patterns of development is essential to reading comprehension and writing proficiency.

6.1 Description

Descriptive paragraphs are frequently encountered in fictional writing. Students' attention should be drawn to passages containing descriptions of people, things and places, and helped to visualize the description. They can then attempt their own descriptions of objects or scenes familiar to them.

Descriptions of people may be based on a live model or a picture. Students should note the features they wish to describe, e.g. facial features, physical characteristics, clothing and the impression they wish to create. The description should then follow a certain order: top to bottom, general to specific. Similarly, descriptions of objects or places should follow a pre-determined pattern of organization: top to bottom, left to right, bottom to top.

Students may need to practice their descriptions orally before making notes and writing their paragraphs. After preparing their paragraphs, students can read them to a partner, a small group or to the class, omitting the topic sentence. The listener(s) can then attempt to identify the person, object or scene described. Writers are thus helped to judge the effectiveness of their writing.

6.2 List Paragraphs

The paragraphs produced in 4.1 to 4.3 are list paragraphs in which lists of details are given to support a topic sentence. This form of development can be elaborated in several ways. Details may be given to support a statement of fact or examples may be given to support a general statement or statement of opinion. While details and examples in a list paragraph may be presented in any order, they may be enumerated as they are stated.

Practice in recognizing and producing such paragraphs can be introduced as they occur in classroom materials. For example, in a science class students may be given a statement, such as "Human life could not survive on the moon," and be required to list details related to the statement. In a social studies class, they could be given a statement of opinion, "Life in North America is very comfortable," and be asked for examples to support this opinion.

Students should also be introduced to the language used to enumerate supporting details and to introduce examples:

For example, . . .	In addition, . . .
In the first (second . . .) place . . .	. . . also . . .
First (Second, Third . . .)	The main reason . . .
Finally, . . .	Another reason . . .

Students should be given time to clarify their ideas through discussion or research before drawing up an outline and writing their paragraphs.

6.3 Chronological Order

Chronological order occurs not only in narrative writing, but also in biography, description of events, directions and explanations of process. An activity similar to that used in preparing oral summaries (see page 67) can be used to help students prepare any writing which uses chronological order.

Chronological development is often used in reports on experiments or activities carried out following a set of directions either read or given by the teacher. Students might also be asked to write a paragraph explaining how to do something based on personal experience.

As a first step in writing a chronological paragraph, students can be asked to recall the steps in the experiment or activity. These are then recorded as a list of imperatives.

For example, after an experiment on condensation students might agree on the following list of directions:

1. Take a beaker.
2. Fill it with water.
3. Add ice to the water in the beaker.
4. Let the beaker stand for 5 minutes.
5. Observe the outside of the beaker.

The list of directions then becomes the outline for the paragraph. Students should be introduced to the words that signal chronological development and use these in their paragraphs:

First, . . .	After . . . ,
Second, (third, fourth) . . .	Before . . . ,
Next, . . .	Then . . .
Finally, . . .	Meanwhile . . .

6.4 Comparison and Contrast

Another form of paragraph development compares or contrasts two ideas, people, objects, events or places. Students might, for example, be asked to compare or to contrast Canada and their native country, or to contrast life in the city with life in their Native community.

A first step in writing a paragraph of comparison or contrast would be to discuss and draw up a chart.

	Canada	native Country
differences (or similarities)	large area	small area
	small population	large population
	cold climate	warm climate
	many industries	many farms
	variety of land forms	mountainous

Students could then be introduced to the vocabulary of comparison and contrast before writing their own paragraphs:

Unlike . . .	On the one hand . . .
Like . . .	On the other hand . . .
Similarly . . .	While . . .
. . . as . . .	Although . . .
both . . . and . . .	. . . is (adjective + er) than ...

6.5 Cause and Effect

In science and social studies classes, students frequently examine events and their causes, or their consequences. Cause and effect development is signalled by sentence markers such as:

as a result of . . .	. . . results from . . .
therefore . . .	. . . is (was) due to . . .
since . . .	. . . causes . . .
because . . .	. . . is (was) caused by . . .

Students might be asked to discuss the effects of a particular event, such as a nuclear attack and draw up a set of notes.

CAUSE:	nuclear attack	EFFECTS:	radiation
			global winter
			disruption of food chain
			mass destruction

They might be asked to discuss an effect and to speculate on its causes.

EFFECT:	low reading ability in high school	CAUSES:	students don't read
			teaching
			too much television
			no need to read

Once students have drawn up their outlines, they can use the cause and effect markers in writing up their paragraphs.

7. Longer Compositions

Once students are familiar with the basic organization of the English expository paragraph - main idea and supporting details - longer compositions are easily introduced. Students need to be made aware of the similarity of organization:

PARAGRAPH		LONGER COMPOSITION
Topic Sentence		Introductory paragraph/thesis statement
Supporting Details	Body -	Development in several paragraphs
Concluding Statement		Concluding paragraph

They need to be made aware also of similar methods of development - listing, chronological order, cause and effect and comparison and contrast.

7.1 Reports, Essays, Term Papers

Longer compositions based on work presented in class follow the organizational pattern outlined above and one or more methods of development. Initially students will need to be given a great deal of guidance in organizing their work. A more elaborate outline should be constructed before students begin to write.

The following activities are intended to prepare students to write a character sketch of a character in a story or novel.

After reading and discussing the story, students should brainstorm a list of characteristics describing the character. Three or four of the characteristics should be selected for the character sketch. Students are then broken into small groups. Each group is assigned one characteristic and instructed to find examples in the story which provide evidence for that characteristic. Students should be reminded of the ways in which an author reveals character: by what the character says or does and by what others say about the character.

Once the group reassembles, an outline can be drawn up.

Paragraph I - Introduction - the character - his/her characteristics

II - Characteristic #1 - examples 1, 2, 3 . . .

III - Characteristic #2 - examples . . .

IV - Characteristic #3 - examples . . .

V - Conclusion

The introductory and concluding paragraphs may be written by the group, students writing the intervening paragraphs, using simple enumeration, independently.

In any subject area, students should be familiar with the content and organization expected before beginning to write.

7.2 Research Projects

Students need to be guided in the preparation of research projects, and practise in the collecting and compiling of information from a variety of sources. The activities below are intended to help students develop some basic research skills before attempting a research project independently.

A. A Group Effort

Students with beginning research skills can complete a model exercise together. Each day for several days the group reads, discusses and makes notes on a passage related to a particular topic. Each passage may present different information or a different point of view. Sources should be carefully noted.

Once all the passages have been examined, the group prepares an outline including major aspects of the topic as gleaned from the individual passages. Working from the notes, the students then prepare a report listing references in an acceptable format.

B. Guided Writing Procedure[35]

In this activity, students work together in small groups to prepare a research project while at the same time practising the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Each group chooses or is given a topic. In the first class session before any research is done, each group discusses and prepares a short report on the topic. This report is read and commented upon by the teacher before the next class session.

In this session, the group, with help from the teacher, decides which areas of the topic need further elaboration and where they are likely to find information. A plan of work is drawn up and each student in the group leaves with an assignment to read in a certain area, to interview an informed source, or to otherwise find information related to a topic.

Once these assignments have been completed, the students in each group report back to the group. The original report is corrected and elaborated upon and a list of references is drawn up following a standard format. The final report can be submitted to the teacher or presented orally to other members of the class.

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[35] Adapted from Lyndon W. Searfoss, Christine C. Smith and Thomas W. Bean, "An Integrated Strategy for Second Language Learners", TESOL Quarterly, 15, No. 2 (December) 1981, pp. 383 - 389.

8. Errors and Marking

Errors in student writing are a frequent cause of discouragement to students and teachers alike. Rather than abandoning writing practice completely, continued effort is required. Students can be helped to reduce the number of errors in their own writing by engaging in activities at a level commensurate with their level of English and by developing good writing habits including the willingness and ability to edit their own work.

8.1 Reducing Errors

The frequency of error in students' written production can be reduced by recognizing the level at which the students are working and providing realistic assignments. Students who cannot organize their ideas in a paragraph are unlikely to be able to produce an essay or report of many paragraphs.

Students also need to be given guidance in their writing until they are able to produce acceptable sentences, paragraphs and longer compositions independently. Guidance can be provided by ensuring that students have something to write about and that students have a format for expressing their ideas. The former need is addressed by giving students time for brainstorming and discussion before writing; the latter through discussion in which students use related vocabulary and sentence forms, and by helping students to recognize and produce paragraphs of different kinds. Students at low levels of fluency will need a great deal of support. As proficiency increases, teacher support can gradually be reduced until students are able to write independently.

Finally, students should be encouraged to take responsibility for their own work by proof-reading assignments carefully. Students can be given time in class to read over and correct their own work or that of a peer. The task can be made more manageable by asking students to check for a particular kind of error: spelling, verb tense, run-on sentences.

Self-editing skills can also be developed by giving students error correction exercises based on their own writing. For example, ten sentences representing frequent error types can be selected from a set of papers and given to a group of students to correct. Students may also benefit from exercises in controlled composition in which a paragraph is transformed from present to past tense, from singular to plural number or from active to passive voice.

8.2 Marking

The goal of marking should be to help students improve their work on the levels of content and language. A marking scheme, such as the one below, which gives attention to both is recommended.

Guide in Scoring Written Compositions[36]

Assign one mark from each of the two sections below. Add the two and multiply this "raw score" by 4.

I Organization, length, content

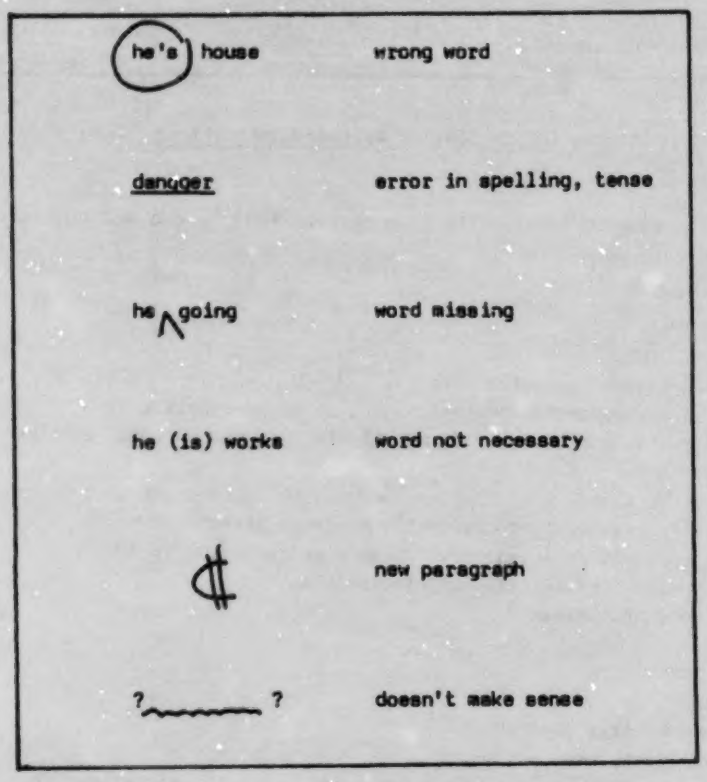
15 An interesting and substantial thesis, within a clear structure (introduction, good development, conclusion) and at an appropriate length.
13 Adequate development of relatively interesting and complex ideas. Clear and coherent.
11 Weak development of routine thought, but does stick to the topic.
9 Little organization beyond the sentence level.
7 No apparent organization. Doesn't stick to the topic.
5 A jumble. Practically unintelligible.
3 Uninterpretable.

II Grammar, vocabulary, spelling

10 Excellent, near native.
8 Moderately complex grammar and usage, with occasional errors.
6 Grammar occasionally obscures meaning. Vocabulary limited to common words. Frequent misspellings.
4 Only phrases and fragments are correct. Uses only very basic vocabulary. Many misspellings.
2 Shows no sense of the mechanics of English.

[36] Adapted from Virginia Pritchard, "ESL and Composition: A Report," TESOL Newsletter, Vol. XIV, No. 3 (June, 1980), pp. 15-17.

Students should be given encouragement and time to revise their work. Use of a marking code helps students to take responsibility for their own corrections. The first time a paper is read the teacher makes an anecdotal comment on the content and organization. Language errors are indicated by a simple code familiar to the students:



No mark is given. Papers are then returned to the students for revision. The final copy is then collected and marked.

LANGUAGE ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

The development of language skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing is not the sole responsibility of the ESL or language teacher. Every area of the curriculum provides opportunities for both informal and formal language practice which will reinforce conceptual learning and foster growth in language for a variety of subject areas and purposes.

Every subject area presents special language problems for LPE students. In addition to the specific vocabulary of topics introduced, each subject area makes use of different patterns of thought and expression.

In the science classroom, for example, students engage in activities which involve describing, classifying, or hypothesizing, which are expressed by identifiable language patterns. Specific constructions, such as passive voice, are used with greater frequency in scientific English, than in everyday language. The social studies curriculum encourages the student to perceive the sequence and relationship of events, to make generalizations based on specific information, to compare and contrast people, places, or conditions. These functions are expressed by specific linguistic forms which may not occur as frequently in other disciplines or situations.

Attention must be given to these special uses and forms of language in all areas of the curriculum.

Lesson Planning for Language Development

In planning lessons and setting objectives for LPE students, the integration of content and language skills should be considered.

EXPERIENCE

R	Listening	W
E		R
A		I
D	CONCEPT	T
I		I
N		N
G	Speaking	G

Understanding of concepts will be enhanced if students have opportunities to listen, speak, read and write within the context of a lesson. Language skill development will be enhanced if it takes place within a meaningful framework.

Classroom activities begin with the development of a concept. An attempt should be made to make key concepts accessible to all learners. This is most effectively done through experience, the use of concrete referents, visuals and the active involvement of students through discussion. At this stage, students are introduced to the language related to the concept and develop an understanding of it. Written language should also be introduced for reinforcement.

Listening and speaking practice can begin as soon as the concept and related language have been introduced. Once students are comfortable with the language related to a topic and have been introduced to the key language in print, more extensive reading and writing practice may be undertaken. Reading and writing activities are a natural extension of the listening and speaking activities which preceed them. These activities should be fairly structured at first, becoming progressively less structured as familiarity with the material and language proficiency increase.

In dealing with LPE students, concepts and related language should be introduced before students are asked to read the text. Reading activities should culminate with the independent reading of the text or related materials; writing activities should culminate with the student's original written production.

The choice of practice activities and objectives for individual students is determined by the language level of the students. Students at lower levels of language proficiency should spend more time in oral practice than in reading and writing activities. They should also engage in more structured activities while students more proficient in English should be encouraged to make more independent use of language.

Any classroom situation can also provide many opportunities for informal language practice. Activities which require students to work in pairs or in small groups help students to use the language of a topic for communication and encourage the use of social language as procedures are clarified, and working relationships established.

A procedure for planning a language development lesson is outlined below:

1. Identify the concepts to be presented.
2. Identify the key vocabulary and language structures.
3. Plan strategies which will clarify the concepts for all learners.
4. Consider the language level of the students in the class, plan language activities to reinforce concepts and practise the key vocabulary and structures in listening, speaking, reading and writing. Choose activities which maximize opportunities for communication.
5. Give appropriate assignments for students to attempt, in class and in follow-up assignments out of class.
6. Give students opportunities to apply newly acquired skills in other contexts. This should occur at frequent intervals throughout the unit.

SAMPLE LESSONS

The sample lessons presented here illustrate some ways in which the subject area teacher can integrate the development of language while meeting subject area objectives. Concept development can be enhanced through the practise of related vocabulary and structures in oral and written English. Teachers are encouraged to try the ideas in the samples to gain familiarity with a language across the curriculum approach.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT THROUGH LITERATURE - LESSON IDEAS FOR THE STORY "THE SECRET LIFE OF WALTER MITTY"[37]

The following series of lessons presents the short story "The Secret Life of Walter Mitty" by James Thurber for students at a transition level. Students are introduced to the story through preparatory activities, guided through the reading of the story, and provided with related practice and follow-up activites. In all activities, consideration is given not only to the creation of literary awareness, but to helping students develop their skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing English. The selection of activities and the duration of the lesson sequence will depend upon the language level of the students.

Objectives:

At the conclusion of this series of lessons the students should:

a) be able to read the story independently with understanding

b) be aware of the means by which character can be revealed and developed

c) produce a character sketch of Walter Mitty

d) understand the plot structure of the story

e) be able to produce a dream sequence for Walter Mitty similar to those contained in the story.

A. Preparation for Reading

1. Through the use of examples and discussion, make certain students are able to distinguish between reality and fantasy.

2. Escape from Reality - Why?

   2.1 Lead the students in a discussion around these questions:

   "Have you ever wanted to escape from reality?"

   "Have you ever known someone who wanted to escape from reality?"

   "Why do people want to escape from reality?"

   During the discussion, list on the chalkboard the reasons why people want to escape from reality.

---

[37] The story appears in American Literature: Ginn Literature Series with Robert A. Bennett as as Senior Author and published by Ginn and Company, 1981. It can also be found in other literature texts.

2.2 Use the information obtained through discussion in 2.1 as the basis for a paragraph-writing exercise. Review with the students standard paragraph organization e.g. topic sentence, supporting details. Together, choose a topic sentence. Introduce students to various transitional phrases used in writing. Build a paragraph framework on the chalkboard.

> There are various reasons why people want to escape from reality. Some people ..... Others ..... Then there are those who ..... Still others .....

Students make use of the information listed previously to complete the paragraph. Students need not follow the framework exactly. Some may prefer to choose their own topic sentence, transitional markers and supporting details; others may rely heavily on the model.

3. Escape from Reality - How?

3.1 Students working in pairs can be given paragraphs, cartoons, or pictures illustrating some of the ways in which people escape from reality e.g. day dreaming, alcohol, drugs, television, soaps, movies, video games. Each pair of students should compile a list of escapes.

Sample paragraphs of how some people escape from reality

a. Rainey rode in the back of the pickup truck. He sat on the piano stool, leaning his elbows on the keys. He squeezed his baseball and thought dark thoughts about his old man. He wished his old man would remember when he was a boy. Did he want to play a beat-up piano? Or did he want to get out of the house and live?

Rainey pictured himself on the mound. He saw himself cool, eyeing the batter. The batter looked scared. And he ought to, with Big Rainey Dukes on the mound. He rolled up his hand in the mitt. He leaned way back, way, way back. The ball headed straight for the batter. The batter jumped back. The ball broke neatly and dipped in across the plate. Strike! Yeah! Yeah! Strike! And another one coming up. Ah, baseball was the thing. A person could squeeze that ball in his hand and feel good. He could smell the horsehide. He could smell his own good sweat. Baseball, that sport made him feel like somebody. It did.

Suddenly he heard his father's voice. "Now you get up here at the top and like guide the piano," his father said.

- John Durham ("The Harps of Heaven")[38]

b. John Straker has had no permanent address for the past three years. On several occasions he has been picked up after having passed out from drinking too much. He joined the A.A. twice, but on both occasions this lasted no more than two weeks. He has been urged to return to his family, but he cannot bear the thought of not being able to support his wife and children. John manages to find odd jobs, but whenever he earns a little money he spends it on liquor, which he usually drinks alone wherever he can find a quiet corner.

c. Mrs. Rossiter explained that the great problem of her life had been her husband's gambling. She had begged him to keep away from the stock market and from cards, and he'd promise her that he'd stop, but then he'd stop and get caught again. The thirty thousand dollars he had lost on Wednesday about cleaned him and his wife out. It meant - oh, I've forgotten what she told me exactly: selling the home - it was mortgaged already, she said, taking the two girls out of school; herself perhaps having to find a position.

- Charles G. Norris ("John Rossiter's Wife")[39]

3.2 In the large group, compare the lists made by the students working in pairs. Compile a master list on the chalkboard.

3.3 Assign a paragraph beginning with the topic sentence, "There are many ways in which people escape from reality." Encourage students to follow the framework established in the previous exercise (2.2).

[38] Adapted from John Durham, "The Harps of Heaven" published in James A. MacNeill ed. Early September: An Anthology of Short Stories. Nelson Canada, 1980.

[39] From Robert J. Dixson, ed. Canadian and American Short Stories in English. Regents.

4. Vocabulary-Characterization

4.1 To introduce and practice the vocabulary terms needed to discuss Walter Mitty, show pictures and relate anecdotes which illustrate some of the characteristics Mitty has (or lacks), e.g. forgetful, lacks confidence, timid, self-assured, domineering, efficient. Through discussion elicit the relevant terms.

4.2 Extend the previous activity by giving small groups of students paragraphs to read and study from the point of view of characterization. The paragraphs should be short and illustrate a single characteristic. Students should note the characteristic illustrated and the means by which the characteristic is illustrated.

Sample paragraphs on characterization.

a. He had scarcely entered the lobby when she approached him and said, "What kept you? I've been pacing back and forth looking out of this window for the last six minutes. You know I don't like to be kept waiting!"

b. Everyone around the table had said what they thought. It was now Charlie's turn. He knew what he wanted to say but continued to stare at the ashtray. He wondered what the others would think of his idea. At last, without looking up, he said, "I'm sorry but I have nothing to suggest."

c. From the time she was thirteen Rilla Mabry had been ashamed of her appearance. It was then that she started growing taller than the other girls. She was also awkward as well as tall and she was too thin.

By the time she was twenty she was fully convinced that her appearance was really something terrible. All of the other girls seemed little and cute and attractive. No matter what Rilla wore it seemed wrong. She was much too tall to wear tailored clothes. And thin dresses simply hung around her loosely.

- Thyra Sumter Winslow ("The Best Looking Girl in Town")[40]

4.3 In the large group, report findings. Each group should give a brief summary of the paragraph studied, the characteristic illustrated and the way in which it was done.

4.4 Together, build up a structured overview of character development, see page 142.

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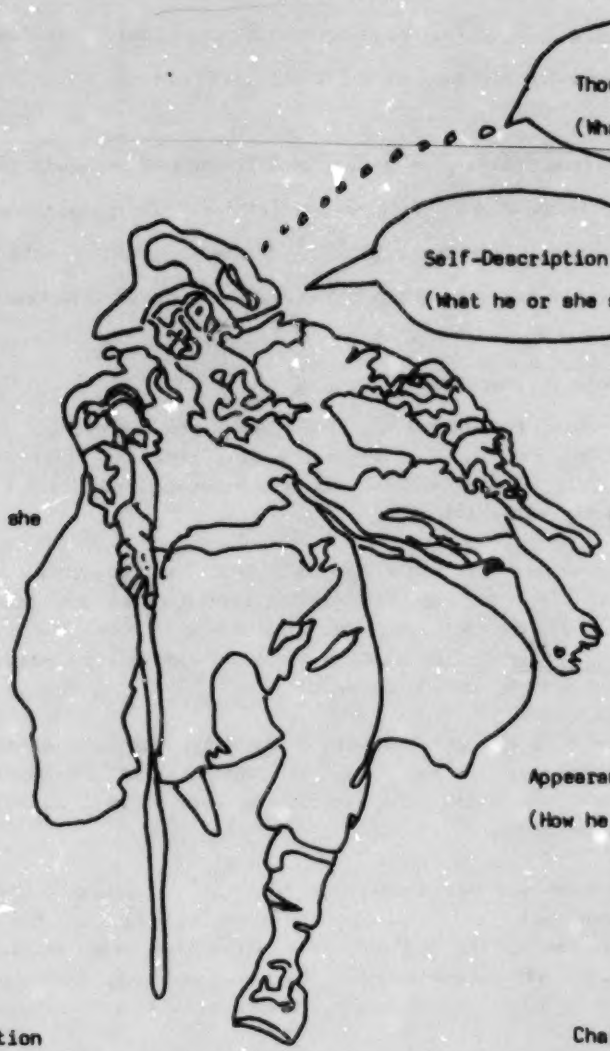
[40] Ibid.

Structured Overview: Ways the Author Develops a Character[41]



[41] From Richard T. Vacca. Content Area Reading. Little, Brown & Co. (Canada) Ltd., 1981, p. 68.

B. Reading the Story

1. Introduce the title of the story and give students a few minutes in which to write ideas suggested by the title. Discuss briefly students' predictions about the content of the story.

2. Reading the Story

2.1 Read the story aloud to the students pausing if necessary to clarify important points. Allow the students to ask questions about the story or assign the story for independent reading. Students could be given a reading guide as illustrated on page 95.

2.2 Give small groups of students the following three level reading guide to the story. Students should be prepared to support their answers with evidence from the story or from their own experiences.

THREE-LEVEL READING GUIDE TO

"THE SECRET LIFE OF WALTER MITTY"

Yes	No	
___	___	1. There are six dream sequences and five units of reality in the story.
___	___	2. Walter Mitty made a trip to Waterbury once a week.
___	___	3. Walter Mitty is a very brave man.
___	___	4. Daydreaming can be dangerous.
___	___	5. The story leaves us with the impression that Walter Mitty will always be a daydreamer.

Instruct students to review the story and then to answer the questions. Each group should be prepared to report on its findings, supporting them with reasons taken directly or inferred from the story.

2.3 Discuss the answers in the large group. Draw the students' attention to important points, and humour implied in the story.

C. Practice Activities

1. Characterization I

1.1 Students re-read and discuss the story in pairs and suggest words to describe Walter Mitty, e.g. timid, forgetful, lacks confidence. Students should be prepared to cite evidence to support their findings. Direct students' attention to the structured overview of character development (on page 142).

1.2 In the large group, discuss the results of the small group discussions and prepare a master list on the chalkboard:

characteristics	evidence
timid	
forgetful	

1.3 Introduce students to a framework for writing a character sketch of Walter Mitty:

Introduction (first paragraph)	"The Secret Life of Walter Mitty" is a story about ..... The main character, Walter Mitty is revealed as .....
Body ("n" paragraphs)	Walter Mitty was ..... For example, ... In addition, ... Furthermore, ...
Conclusion (last paragraph)	It is clear that .....

1.4 Students write a character sketch of Walter Mitty. This may be done by students working independently, or in small groups with each member of the group contributing one paragraph to the body of the composition, and the group as a whole writing the introduction and conclusion, and then editing the finished product.

1.5 Character sketches can be presented orally in class and discussed and evaluated for content and organization.

1.6 A more elaborate character sketch could require students to contrast the real Walter Mitty with Walter Mitty as he imagines himself in the dream sequences.

2. Dream Sequences

2.1 With the whole class, re-read the first dream sequence (the first three paragraphs) of the story and look for the following three elements:

a) the transition leading into the dream

b) the dream itself

c) the transition leading back to reality

2.2 Assign the other four dream sequences to groups of students for analysis. One or two members of each group can look for each phase of the dream sequence and report findings to other members of the small group.

2.3 Return to the first dream sequence and with the whole class prepare a paragraph summarizing the entire sequence (transition into the dream, the dream, transition back to reality).

2.4 Students return to their small groups and write similar summaries of their own dream sequences. Each group can present its summary to the class. These can be written on chart paper and displayed on a bulletin board for reading practice.

3. Characterization II

3.1 Discuss with students how Walter Mitty likes to see himself, e.g. brave, confident, unflappable and cite evidence. Prepare a list on the chalkboard as in C 1.2, page 144.

3.2 Students independently or in small groups can use the framework from C 1.3, page 144 to write a character sketch of Walter Mitty as he would like to be.

3.3 Students may combine information from C 3.1 and C 1.2 to compare Walter Mitty as he would like to be and as he really is. This activity could be done orally or in writing.

4. Creative Writing

4.1 Discuss other possible daydreams for Walter Mitty. Help students to develop new dream sequences complete with transitions into and out of their dreams. List suggestions on the chalkboard.

4.2 Students working independently or in small groups can write their own dream sequences for Walter Mitty. These can be presented to the class or compiled into a booklet and circulated in the class.

D. Extensions

1. Daydreams - Good or Bad?

1.1 Students in small groups list either advantages or disadvantages of daydreaming. In a whole group discussion findings are shared and two master lists are drawn up.

1.2 Students can then be introduced to the following framework and transitional markers, and write paragraphs of contrast.

Daydreaming - Pro and Con

Daydreaming has both advantages and disadvantages.

Sometimes.....

At other times.....

On the one hand.....

On the other,.....

....., but..... Although .....

....., ...

1.3 Students can choose sides and stage a debate about the advantages and disadvantages of daydreaming.

2. Students can listen to this and other Thurber stories on record or cassette.

3. Students can read related poems and stories, and compare them to "The Secret Life of Walter Mitty".

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT THROUGH SCIENCE

As in other subject areas, the teaching of science and the development of language skills complement each other. The scientific approach of "discovery" through experiences, "reporting" from the literal, and "predicting" at the concluding level provides many opportunities to develop the four language skill areas. The following lesson follows the six steps for developing a language across the curriculum lesson suggested on page 137 of the handbook.

UNIT: Earth Science - Weather

CONCEPT: Air holds varying amounts of water.

OBJECTIVE: Students should be able to

- o understand and define the term "relative humidity"
- o explain the meaning of the statement "the relative humidity today is 30%"
- o read a textbook passage related to the topic
- o write up a demonstration on relative humidity using both passive and active voice.

The lesson is based on the objective as stated in the Grade IX Science Curriculum (Manitoba Department of Education, 1979, page 100):

> "1. Define and use the terms conduction, convection, radiation, saturation, land breeze, sea breeze, dew point, relative humidity, warm front, cold front . . ."

The content of the lesson is taken from Concepts and Challenges in Science, Book 2, pp. 228-229.

KEY VOCABULARY:

capacity	compare
contain	relative humidity
per cent (%)	saturate
moisture	saturated
vapour	absorb

LESSON IDEAS

1. Informally assess the students' level of understanding of relative humidity. By using questions similar to the following the teacher can identify which students are or are not familiar with the concept being taught.

   Can air hold water?

   What is the name for water that's held by the air?

   Is air ever saturated with water?

   This morning the weather forecaster said that the relative humidity was 50%. What does this mean?

2. For this lesson a demonstration has been chosen to provide an experience around which to develop the language necessary to understand and talk about the fact that air holds varying amounts of water. It is important to provide students with an experience that will lead to understanding the concept and prepare them for talking, reading and writing about the topic. It is suggested that the experience be planned with the reading of a particular textbook passage in mind.

3. Demonstration

Equipment: sponge, container of water, graduated beaker

Procedure: It is important to decide on the language to be used before you do the demonstration. Here is an example of the language that could be used to accompany each step of the demonstration. Pause and pace your speech to the appropriate actions.

"First I will pour 500 ml of water into my beaker. Here is a dry sponge which I will put into the beaker. What's happening? The sponge is slowly soaking up the water. The sponge is absorbing the water. When the sponge is full of water, it's saturated."

"Now I'll take the sponge out of the water and let the water drip from the sponge back into the beaker."

When the water stops dripping, ask a student to read the water level. The water level stands at 480 ml.

"How much water has the sponge soaked up? 20 ml. Can the sponge hold any more water? No, it can't."

"We can say that the capacity of the sponge is 20 ml. The sponge is now saturated. It is holding as much as it can hold. It is saturated to its capacity."

"Next I will squeeze the sponge until 10 ml runs back into the beaker."

"How many ml are left in the sponge?" 10 ml."
"What is the capacity of the sponge?" 20 ml."

"We can say that the sponge is holding half or 50% of its capacity. It is now only 50% saturated because it is holding only half of what it can hold."

"We can say that the relative humidity of the sponge is 50%. This means that the sponge is holding only 50% of the water it can hold when it is filled to capacity."

"Air is like a sponge. It can hold water like a sponge. If it holds only half of its capacity it is 50% saturated, and the relative humidity is 50%."

"Relative humidity of air compares the amount of moisture (water) in the air with the amount it can hold."

4. Concept and Language Reinforcement Activities

4.1 Using the key vocabulary and concepts, develop sentences that come out of the experience.

Sample: Repeat the demonstration with one of the students as actor, and record the experience on the blackboard. Sample:

1. Bill put a dry sponge into a beaker containing 500 ml of water.
2. The sponge soaked up some of the water.
3. Bill took the sponge out of the water.
4. When the water stopped dripping from the sponge, Bill said the beaker contained 480 ml of water.
5. The sponge soaked up 20 ml of water.
6. The sponge has a capacity of 20 ml.
7. The sponge was saturated because it was holding as much water as it could.
8. If a sponge is holding as much water as it can, we say it is 100% saturated.
9. We can say the relative humidity of the sponge is 100%.
10. Bill squeezed the sponge until 10 ml of water ran back into the beaker.
11. The sponge held only half the water it could hold.
12. The sponge held only 50% of its capacity.
13. The relative humidity of the sponge was 50% because it was holding only half the water it could hold.
14. Air is like a sponge.
15. Relative humidity of air compares the amount of moisture in the air with the amount it could hold.
16. When the relative humidity is 30%, it means the air is holding only 30% of the water that it could hold.

4.2 Treat the sentences as a reading passage by reading them together, checking on the meanings of key words, asking literal questions about content and preparing cloze exercises.

4.3 Vocabulary practice

Substitute other words for the underlined words. Copy the sentence with the new word in it.

1. We used a beaker <u>with</u> 500 ml of water for the demonstration.
2. A sponge can <u>soak up</u> water.
3. The sponge is <u>filled to capacity</u>.
4. Air always has some <u>water</u> in it.
5. Sometimes air <u>is saturated</u>.

Some possible substitutions may be: which contained, absorb, saturated, moisture, holds as much water as it can.

4.4 Make comparison statements

Sponge	Holding	Capacity
A	5ml	10ml
B	7ml	10ml
C (write in amounts)	__ml	10ml

Sponge A is holding __% of what it can hold.

Sponge B __ _____ ___ of its capacity.

Sponge C _____.

4.5 Definition of relative humidity

Combine the four parts of the definition to make one sentence.

with what it could hold

compares

relative humidity

the amount of moisture in the air

4.6 Interpreting

Model: If the relative humidity is 30%, it means that the air is holding 30% of the moisture that it could hold.

Write statements explaining the meaning of:

a. The relative humidity is 60% _____

_____

b. The relative humidity is 95%. _____

_____

c. The relative humidity is 12%. _____

_____

With reference to the above:

An example of dry air is a, b or c.

An example of moist air is a, b or c.

An example of air that is almost saturated is a, b or c.

4.7 Passive voice exercise

The passive voice is used more frequently in science than in any other subject. Students hear the passive voice from teachers, read it in textbooks, and they are expected to use the passive in writing. Because it appears so frequently, it is often assumed that students will acquire an understanding of the passive voice and learn to use it without formal help.

Students should understand that you use the passive voice whenever the results of the action are more important than the person or thing that is causing the action. We would say, "The sponge was placed in the beaker.", instead of, "Bill put the sponge in the beaker.", pointing out that the performer (Bill) of the action is not as important and should not be mentioned. To give students practice in using the passive and the language of science at the same time, use an actual experience as part of the exercise. In this case, the sentences previously written in the active voice could be used.

Change the appropriate sentences in 4.1 to the passive voice. Do the exercise orally before students write the sentences.

The dry sponge was put into a beaker of water containing 500 ml of water. The water was soaked up by the sponge. Next, the sponge was taken out of the water. When the water stopped dripping, the beaker contained 480 ml of water. 20 ml of water had soaked into the sponge. The capacity of the sponge was 20 ml.

5. Textbook reading

The preceding demonstration and the related language activities are preparation for reading pages 228-229 from Concepts and Challenges in Science, Book 2.

6. Follow-up

Ask students to listen to the evening weather forecast on the radio or watch a specific channel at a certain time. Next day, ask students to tell you what the relative humidity was and what it means. You could also play an audio recording of the forecast and ask students to listen for the relative humidity and tell you what it means. (Relative humidity is 45%. If the relative humidity is 45%, it means that the air is holding only 45% of the moisture that it could hold.)

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT THROUGH MATHEMATICS

Problem solving is central to any mathematics program. Most students, however, encounter difficulty in solving verbal problems for various reasons: 1) the students may be unable to read the problem with understanding, 2) the student may understand the problem but be unable to translate it into mathematical terms, 3) the student may be unable to carry out the computations required by the problem.

Many students, who are otherwise good students in mathematics, have difficulty with problem solving because they are unable to read the problems with understanding. Frequently, they are unfamiliar with the special terminology of mathematics or the special uses of familiar words in the field of mathematics. Further, there are many students who also need assistance in translating a verbal problem into mathematical terms.

Problem solving is approached in two ways in the classroom. One is to present verbal problems related to a mathematical topic currently being treated in class. Such problems generally follow a similar pattern and require students to use similar methods to solve them. These problems represent an important first step in problem solving.

A second approach which encourages students to develop independence in problem solving, is to present problems which represent several different topics and which require students to use a variety of strategies in solving them. Students are guided through a procedure for problem solving. As students become more adept at problem solving the amount of guidance is decreased.

Whichever approach to problem solving is taken, students need careful guidance in problem reading. Care must be taken to ensure that students understand the situations presented in the problem and that they not only understand but are able to use mathematical terminology.

The following sample lesson has problem solving as its focus. Students are guided systematically through a series of verbal problems which represent several different mathematical topics. The problems are at a grade 7 level, but because they are not related to a particular unit of work, they could be introduced for review at higher levels.

The lesson assumes that students are competent in the mathematical processes required by the solutions and at a transition level of English. In the lesson, students are taken step by step

through a problem solving procedure. In addition, attention is given to using the material for practice in understanding, speaking, reading and writing English as it relates to mathematics.

Objective: The students should be able to:

- o read the problems with fluency and comprehension
- o identify factual information and the process for solving each problem
- o translate the problem into mathematical terms
- o complete the problems independently
- o state the answer to the problems in complete sentences.

The approach to problem solving followed here, and of which students should become aware is elaborated in Improving Reading in Every Class.[42] The seven steps, from "problem" to "answer", are sequenced as follows:

1. Read the problem thoroughly, asking "What is this all about?". (Note: In this lesson, students are asked to read the problems aloud for practice in pronunciation of mathematical terms.)
2. Reread the problem, asking, "What am I to find here?"
3. Ask yourself, "What facts are given?"
4. Plan your attack.
5. Estimate the answer.
6. Carry out the operations.
7. Check your work.

[42] From Ellen Lamar Thomas and H. Alan Robinson, Improving Reading in Every Class, (Abridged Second Edition). Allyn and Bacon, 1977, pp. 320-322.

The following problems are dealt with in this lesson.[43]

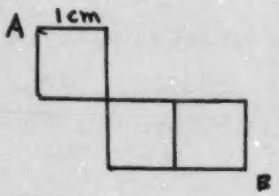
1. $8 + 5(6-4) - 2 =$

2. Find the next number in the sequence

   $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \ldots$

3. Potato chips cost 25 cents a bag and a drink costs 40 cents. How many of each did you buy if you spent exactly $2.20?

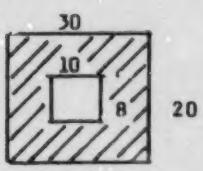
4. How many different 5 cm paths are there from point A to point B?



5. What is the sum of all the divisors of 12?

6. One package of gum has 6 sticks. Student A has 1 1/2 packages, Student B has 3 packages, and Student C has 1 package. What is the average number of sticks of gum per student?

7. Find the area of the shaded portion in square units.



8. In a class of 30 students, 1/3 received a mark of less than 60% on a math test, while 3/5 obtained a mark of between 60% and 90%. How many students achieved a mark over 90%?

[43] Problems selected from Problem Solving, Resource Book, page 96, prepared at a Problem Solving Seminar, September 29, 30 and October 1, 1980, and distributed by the Manitoba Department of Education.

Problem 1

$8 + 5 (6 - 4) - 2 =$

1.1 Have the students write the problem from dictation. Check answers by having the students read the problem back orally. If students have difficulty, read the problem aloud, write the problem on the blackboard, and practise reading it together. Students should be aware of the different ways of expressing mathematical operations in English, e.g. "+" can be stated as "plus" or "add". It may be useful to keep a classroom wall chart of mathematical terms listing the many words which can be used to signal the various operations.

1.2 Help students identify the procedure they will follow in solving the problem: operations in brackets are done first, followed by division and addition.

1.3 (Optional)

Have students in groups of 3 or 4 make up a word problem which could be solved by the equation. Groups can write their problems on acetate for use with the overhead projector, or on the blackboard, and present them to the class for discussion.

Note: The first few times this problem writing activity is introduced, prepare an example with the whole class, first.

> A boy had $8.00 in a bank at the beginning of the week. Every day, from Monday to Friday, his mother gave him $6.00. He spent $4.00 on food and put the rest of the money in his pocket. On Saturday, he discovered that there was a hole in his pocket and he had lost half of the money he had saved. He put the money that was left in the bank. How much money was in the bank now?

Problem 2

Find the next number in the sequence: 1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 1/16, ...

2.1 Have students read the problem aloud.

Discuss the meaning of the word 'sequence'.

Find examples of other kinds of sequences: day of the week, months of the year, names in the class list.

Ask students to identify the next number in the sequence.

2.2 Help the students to identify and articulate what must be answered in the problem:

S: "We must find the next number in the sequence."
T: "How will you do that?"
S: "We must find the relationship between the numbers in the sequence."

Be sure students understand the meaning of the word "relationship". Use examples of family relationships and social relationships to clarify and extend meaning.

2.3 Help students to discover the relationship between the numbers given. Discuss and model the structures in which the answer may be presented, "The next number in the sequence is ____."

Problem 3

> Potato chips cost 25 cents a bag and a drink costs 40 cents. How many of each did you buy if you spent exactly $2.20?

3.1 Have students read the problem silently first, then aloud. Pay attention to the reading and writing of monetary units. Ask students to explain the problem in their own words. Help them to visualize the situation. Ask, "What picture do you see in this problem?", "Where could this happen?".

3.2 Help students to state what they are to find in the problem.

"We must find out how many bags of chips and how many drinks we can buy for $2.20."

3.3 Help students to identify the information given.

Chips -- 25¢ each
Drinks -- 40¢ each
Total spent $2.20

3.4 Brainstorm for methods of solving the problem. Direct students toward setting up tables.

Drinks

1	2	3	...
40	80	120	...

Chips

1	2	3	...
25	50	75	...

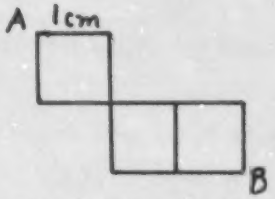
3.5 Help students to estimate reasonable answers and discuss an acceptable way of presenting the answers, e.g.

For $2.20, I could buy ___ bags of chips and ___ drinks.

3.6 Ask students how they can check their answer after they have found it.

Problem 4

How many different 5 cm paths are there from point A to point B?



4.1 Have the students read the problem aloud. Discuss the meaning of path and point. To clarify the meaning of 5 cm path, put the diagram on the blackboard and outline several different paths from A to B, having students measure and describe each path, e.g. a 5 cm path, a 7 cm path.

4.2 Help students to state what they are to find in this problem.

4.3 Help students to identify the information given.

4.4 Discuss strategies for solving the equation (The obvious one here is simply counting.).

4.5 Discuss structures for presenting the answer.

"There are ___ different 5 cm paths from point A to point B."

Problem 5

What is the sum of all the divisors of 12?

5.1 Have the students read the problem aloud. Discuss the problem and be sure students are familiar with the key terms. Ask students what operations the key words suggest to them.

5.2 Help students to state what they are asked to find in this problem.

"We must find the sum of all the divisors of 12."

5.3 Ask the students what information has been given. In this problem, only the dividend (12) is given.

5.4 Brainstorm strategies for solving the problem. List the steps on the chalkboard.

1) Find the divisors of 12

Discuss a method for finding all the divisors of 12. Find divisors of other numbers for practice.

2) Add <u>all</u> the divisors of 12.

5.5 Help students to estimate an answer and model a statement for presenting their estimate.

"I think the sum of all the divisors of 12 is ___".

<u>Problem 6</u>

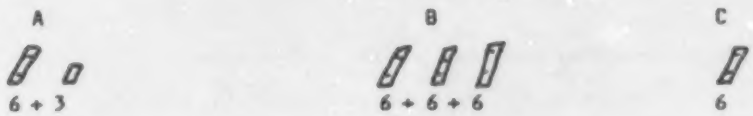
> One <u>package of gum</u> has 6 <u>sticks</u>.
>
> Student A has 1 1/2 packages,
>
> Student B has 3 packages, and
>
> Student C has 1 package of gum.
>
> What is the average number of sticks of gum the students have?

6.1 Have students read the problem silently. Ask students to visualize the problem (It is about three students who have gum). Have students read the problem aloud. Discuss the problem and be sure students are familiar with the key terms. Show students a <u>package of gum</u> and count the <u>sticks</u> in the package. Help students recall the meaning of <u>average</u> and the means of finding it.

6.2 Help students to state what they are to find in the problem.

"We must find the average number of sticks of gum per student."

6.3 Help students to identify the information given. This may be represented graphically on the blackboard.



6.4 Brainstorm strategies for solving the problem. Note that there are different ways of proceeding. This should be pointed out to students and more than one method listed on the blackboard.

Solution A: 1) Find the total packages of gum the three students have.

A + B + C = ___

2) Find the average number of packages of gum each student has.

Total - 3 = ___

3) Find the average number of sticks of gum each student has.

___ x 6 = S

Solution B: 1) Find the number of sticks of gum each student has.

1 1/2 x 6 = A; 3 x 6 = B; 1 x 6 = C

2) Find the total number of sticks of gum the three students have.

A + B + C = Total

3) Find the average number of sticks of gum each student has.

T - 3 = ____

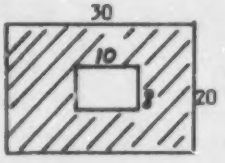
The average number of sticks is ____.

6.5 Help students to estimate the answer by referring to the diagram. Model a statement for presenting the answer.

"The average number of sticks of gum each student has is ___."

Problem 7

Find the area of the shaded portion in square units. Figure 1 is 30 by 20; Figure 2 is 10 by 8.



7.1 Have the students read the problem aloud. Be sure students understand the key terms. Review the formula for finding area.

7.2 Help students to state what they are to find in this problem.

S. "We must find the area of the shaded portion."

T. "Is there anything else you must find?"

S. "We have to find the area of the unshaded portion."

"We have to find the area of the whole figure."

7.3 Help students identify the information given in the diagram by listing the dimensions on the blackboard.

Given
- the length (30 units) and width (20 units) of the whole figure
- the length (10 units) and width (8 units) of the unshaded portion.

7.4 Brainstorm strategies for solving the problem. Help students to see that if they know the area of the large rectangle and the area of the small rectangle they can find the answer by subtraction. Model the steps on the blackboard.

7.5 Help students to estimate the answer (roughly 600 - 100 = 500 square units) and an acceptable way of presenting the answer.

"The area of the shaded portion is ___ square units."

1) Find area of entire figure: $30 \times 20 = a^1$
2) Find area of unshaded portion: $8 \times 10 = a^2$
3) Subtract the area of the unshaded portion from the area of the shaded portion: $a^1 - a^2 =$ __7__.

Problem 8

> In a class of 30 students, 1/3 received a mark of less than 60% on a math test, while 3/5 obtained a mark of between 60% and 90%. How many students achieved a mark over 90%?

8.1 Have students read the problem silently first, and then aloud. Discuss the problem. Ask students to visualize the situation described in the problem. Note the vocabulary items "received", "obtained" and "achieved". Have students state the problem in their own words.

8.2 Help students to state what they are to find in this problem.

"We must find how many students got marks over 90%."

8.3 Have students make a diagram to illustrate the information given in the problem. Start them off with a scale of marks.

0		
10		
20		
30	1/3 x 30 = ____	students with marks under 60
40		
50		
59		
60		
70	3/5 x 30 = ____	students with marks between 60 and 90
80		
90		
91	____	students with mark above 90
100		
	____	
	30	students in total

8.4 Help students to estimate an answer by looking at the diagram. The answer must be less than 30 and will probably be a very small number.

8.5 Divide students into small groups to develop a procedure for solving the problem. Have the groups write their steps on chart paper to share with the class. It is important for students to see that there is more than one method of solving the problem, e.g.:

Solution A:

1) Find out how many students have marks under 60.
   (1/3 x 30 = __?__)
2) Find out how many students have marks between 60 and 90.
   (3/5 x 30 = __??__)
3) Add up the number of students with marks under 30.
   (? + ?? = __???__)
4) Subtract this number from 30 (the number of students in the class).
   (30 - ??? = ___)

Solution B:

1) Find out what fraction of the class had marks under 90.
   (1/3 + 3/5 = __?)
2) Find out how many students had marks under 90.
   (? x 90 = __??)
3) Subtract this number from 30.
   (30 - ?? = ___)

Solution C:

1) Find out what fraction of the class had marks under 90.
   (1/3 + 3/5 = __?)
2) Find out what fraction of the class had marks over 90.
   (1 - ? = ??)
3) Multiply the fraction obtained by 30.
   (30 x ?? = __???)

8.6 Discuss an acceptable way of presenting the answer, e.g. "___ students had marks over 90%", and a procedure for checking the answer (refer students back to the diagram, 8.3).

Follow-Up

Correct the answers in class. Students should re-read the problems and state the answers in sentences as discussed previously. Corrections may be done as a whole class activity, or, to increase opportunities for language use, students can work in small groups to correct and discuss answers, calling on the teacher for help where necessary.

At the end of the small group correction activity, problems which caused general difficulty should be discussed with the whole class.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT THROUGH SOCIAL STUDIES

The material for developing map skills which follows should be considered as a unit of work to be undertaken over an unspecified period of time depending upon the diversity in experience and capability of the student population. Many LPE students have map literacy skills, but they need the English associated with the symbols and concepts. Others will need both the conceptual development of map literacy skills and the associated language. This unit is designed for students whose English proficiency is at Level 2 or 3 (see page 2), and who are still in need of language reinforcement and refinement. The content chosen is Manitoba's geographic location and features. While the suggested activities are based on a Manitoba highway map, a local street map could just as easily be used.

Unit: Developing Map Skills[44]

Objectives: Geographic

Knowledge Objectives. The student should be able to:

- demonstrate increased map literacy (awareness and use of map symbols, compass bearings, and the relationship of Manitoba to adjacent areas)
- demonstrate an increased awareness of Manitoba's geography (places, features)
- demonstrate an expanded geographic vocabulary
- explain geographic concepts as on the map sheet.

Thinking and Research Objectives. The student should be able to:

- use map symbols (as per legend) to obtain information
- clearly explain (both orally and in written form) a map symbol
- clearly explain (both orally and in written form) a route between two or more places
- follow a set of directions offered either orally or in written form, regarding a route
- extend their ability at note-taking.

Attitudes and Values Objectives. The student should be able to:

- show some appreciation for the efforts of the cartographer
- show some appreciation for the diversity and size of Manitoba.

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44 Curriculum reference: see units at the grade 7 to 10 level in the Interim Social Studies Guide, Manitoba Department of Education, 1983.

Social Participation Objectives. The student should be able to:

- show tolerance for the efforts of others at giving and following directions in verbal or print forms
- demonstrate cooperation in a group to create examples for class use.

Objectives: Language Development

Listening. The students should be able to:

- recognize new vocabulary used by the teacher, and by fellow students on subsequent occasions
- follow directions expressed orally
- develop notes from class presentation and discussion.

Speaking. The student should be able to:

- participate in class conversations (formal and informal)
- demonstrate a knowledge of the geographical content studied by using appropriate speech
- answer or ask questions so that the teacher and classmates clearly understand the intent.

Reading. The student should be able to:

- read a set of directions (and follow accordingly)
- demonstrate reading skills for visual material (ie: map literacy)
- read aloud personally prepared material for classmates.

Writing. The student should be able to:

- put together a series of short sentences to form a paragraph
- improve spelling and written grammar
- offer a coherent set of instructions for others to follow to travel from one place to another.

NOTE: The four skill areas are developed and culminate in the use of student written material appropriate to the unit. Some lesson suggestions are outlined below. The phrasing of questions to elicit responses is left to the classroom teacher. The sequence as presented has been developed and used with transition classes, but it could be modified to suit other teaching situations.

Materials for the Unit

Canadian Atlas

Current highway map of Manitoba.

Reserve map of Manitoba.

Current City of Winnipeg street map or a local town or city map.

Pictures (prints, slides) of geographical features.

Evaluation of the Unit

Class participation

- grade for overall classroom participation
- grade for quality of, and amount of oral contribution

Assignments

- sketch maps of routes
- written descriptions of routes
- written description of symbols (meanings)
- identification of "where are you" from a provided route description (can be taken up orally or as hand-in)
- distance calculations

Testing (students will need a map in front of them)

- oral descriptions given, students write down destination
- written descriptions provided, students develop sketch maps, or respond with ultimate destination
- written description given, students are asked about features along the route
- students create sketch map for route between two (or more) places
- students write a paragraph describing a route between any two (or more) places
- short answer responses about features along a route with the route either being provided orally, as a written description, or as a sketch map.

VOCABULARY

map
globe
atlas
political map
physical map
community
province
territory
body of water
state

border
international border
symbol
compass direction
(N, S, E, W, NW, NE,
SE, SW)
latitude/parallel
longitude/meridian
hemisphere
equator
Prime Meridian
International Date Line

compass rose
RCMP
tourism
highway traffic sign
grid
map (grid) index/gazeteer
sketch map
scale
bar scale
estimation

THE LESSON

1. The Location of Manitoba

Materials: world wall map (slate, political/physical)
globe
Canadian wall map (slate, political/physical)
Canadian maps

Procedure:

a) On each of these maps "find Manitoba", and "find your community".
b) Discuss adjacent Canadian features - provinces, territories, bodies of water.
c) Discuss adjacent American features - states.
d) For b) and c), discuss the border - symbols, meaning (photo examples are a great aid here).
e) A possible tangent here - border crossing procedures, customs and immigration, passports, reporting or declaring. This can be as extensive as the teacher feels is appropriate.
f) Consider compass directions from Manitoba to adjacent features -- 8 point compass (N, NE, E, SE, S, SW, W, NW).
g) Review and reinforce latitude and longitude concepts.
h) Add concept of hemispheres and dividing lines between them (equator, Prime Meridian, International Date Line).

2. Symbols (From the Legend)

Materials: Canadian map
Provincial highway map

Procedure:

a) Develop for each symbol a clear one sentence description e.g. "A campsite is shown as a small green triangle."
b) Simultaneously with a) read and say the words for the feature being described.
c) Also, with a) and b) define or explain the concept being represented by each symbol. Visual support is crucial in linking conceptual development to language development. These visuals can be found on the map itself, in texts, in supplementary resource books, in your vertical file, or photographs (print or slide).

d) Discuss the other items of information found on the map such as compass rose, tourist regions, RCMP posts and highway traffic signs. For each symbol, develop an understanding. Explore the map sheet for all of its support information.

NOTE: Temporarily omit the index, the distance table, and the map scales.

3. Location of Features on the Map

Relative Location

By pointing to a wall mounted copy of the highway map, identify a feature, and ask for a description of "Where is ...?".

The response could be: beside ...; on the shore of ...; east of ...; at the junction of ... and ...; in ...

Review of 8 point compass directions is helpful.

Quadrants of a map can be introduced as a parallel to hemispheres.

This exercise illustrates the problem of clearly identifying for everyone where a feature is located.

Grid Location

a) Introduce the concept of a grid. (Chalkboard example using alphabetic, numeric or alpha-numeric formats). This is a logical extension of latitude and longitude material. Places are located either in a "grid" or at coordinates of the grid.

b) Identify the map's grid and index.

c) Use a variety of features (e.g. cities, towns, villages, parks, lakes, railway junctions, river junctions, highway junctions, airports) to practice the use of grid location.

d) Initially teacher provided items are to be offered, later student found items are to be used in both oral and written activities.

e) Work the grid location in two ways: 1) Given a place name and grid location, find the place. 2) Given a grid reference, and an identifier (e.g. town, lake, river) name the feature.

f) Supplement the locating of places with some anecdotes about the area, e.g.

Killarney	--	"An Irish Community".
Hnausa	--	"An Icelandic Community".
Kleefeld	--	"The Bee Capital of Manitoba".
Morden	--	"Experimental Farm" and "Corn and Apple Festival".
Ebb and Flow	--	A Native community.

Site Location

Return to location descriptions but be far more specific and comprehensive for both oral and written examples. Again use teacher and student prepared examples throughout.

The community of Berens River is found in grid F7, on the official Manitoba highway map. It is on the north shore of the Berens River. Berens River drains westward into Lake Winnipeg about midway along its east shore." This too can be reversed by offering a comprehensive description (oral or written) and asking what is there.

4. Route Descriptions

The intent here is to integrate the map information studied up to now, into a real life activity.

Procedure:

a) for any two places or features, connected by a direct route, develop a sentence(s) to describe the route taken. This uses grid location, symbols, directions, and other map information. The descriptions can be done orally or in written form, by student and teacher, and should be accompanied by sketch map activities.

b) Over time and with practice, increase the complexity of subsequent examples. For example,

add 1 turn
add 2 turns
change highways
double back
alternate routes
routes can be rectangular, triangular, or circular
vary road quality
pass through communities, parks
Any of these can be teacher or student generated, and done individually, in pairs or groups, and handled orally or in written form.

c) Final progression is to "Manitoba Maze" exercises. These are long routes that involve a compilation of all the map elements. Sketch maps and written descriptions are integral here. Question sheets can be developed asking for specifics of a particular route, e.g. towns passed through, parks visited (name, number) and rivers crossed.

5. Links beyond Manitoba

Discuss examples of transportation links from Manitoba to adjacent political units, e.g. roads, railways, airways, waterways as shown on maps.

6. Distance

a) Initial discussion should be about how far it is from "____" to "____".
By extension, discussion about distances and travel should be encouraged.

b) Introduce maps as scaled items. Define a map as a smaller than reality representation of certain conditions.

c) Study map scales. The bar scale is most likely found on a highway map. Representative fractions are found on atlas maps.

d) Choose two points on a map that are connected by straight roads. Measure this with any straight edge (ruler or paper) and compare with the bar scale. This involves estimation if the chosen place distance falls between the markings presented. In subsequent attempts, select points that are not connected by straight lines. Rail line distances can also be done and compared to highway distance. The distance table should be used to provide exact distances for comparison with student calculated distances. Alternate routes can be considered. The distance element can be added to "Manitoba Maze" exercises.

ASSESSMENT

The assessment of LPE students presents special problems for teachers and students. Current classroom assessment practices are often inappropriate and produce discouraging results for student and teacher alike. Standardized tests of achievement and aptitude, which are often culturally biased and require a certain level of linguistic competence, discriminate against LPE students and give a false picture of their abilities and potential. Testing should measure the student's achievement in relation to program objectives and provide the student and teacher with diagnostic information to help the student progress to desired goals.

This chapter focuses on methods of language assessment which will provide a realistic measure of student performance for a variety of purposes. It also examines the purposes for which students are assessed in language and academic content, and offers some suggestions for reporting to students and parents.

PURPOSES OF ASSESSMENT

1. Assessment for Placement in ESL, Transition and Mainstream Programs

The assessment of students for placement in special language programs begins at the initial interview. Questions to elicit basic information (Appendices A.2 and A.3) can readily identify students in need of an intensive ESL program. Students beyond the beginning stages of English language learning should also be given tests of reading and writing to help in determining an appropriate level of placement in special or regular language programs.

Students beyond the beginning stages of learning will also need to be assessed for readiness for mainstream programs in other subject areas. Language assessment forms only a small part of this process. It is also necessary to determine the student's level of background knowledge and skill in the area concerned. This can be done through a review of previous school records in conjunction with testing conducted by a subject area teacher.

Appropriate placement in transition and mainstream programs depends not only on good testing procedures, but on clearly articulated statements of minimal levels of language competence and subject area background and skills required for successful participation in a particular program. Testing can then establish an appropriate match between student and program.

Placement of students in programs on the basis of initial assessment should be considered tentative and reviewed regularly throughout the term. Test anxiety, unfamiliarity with testing procedures, shyness in a new situation, and a host of other factors may adversely affect a student's test performance and underestimate ability. On the other hand, language proficiency and subject area readiness alone will not guarantee a student's success in a program. Other factors, including motivation, interest level, cultural and/or environmental shock, and work habits may affect student performance in the classroom. If the initial placement later appears inappropriate, adjustments should be made after a full review of the situation.

2. **Assessment for Diagnostic Purposes**

Assessment of language skills and their components help the teacher to build up a profile of the language learner. Awareness of the student's strengths and weaknesses can help the teacher in planning a program for individual students or small groups of students, or in setting up appropriate remedial activities. For example, a student who reads and writes English well, but has difficulty with spoken English may benefit from additional opportunities for oral expression; a student with good oral skills may require help in improving reading and writing skills. Diagnostic testing can also help in pairing students for peer-tutoring situations. For example, a fluent speaker who has difficulty reading and writing might be paired with a student who reads and writes well but whose oral skills are weak.

3. **Assessment for Achievement in Language Programs**

Achievement in language learning is best measured in relation to the language skill objectives of the course. Assessment based solely on term work and classroom performance may or may not be an appropriate measure of language growth depending upon the nature of the classroom activities. The most reliable measures of a student's language proficiency require the student to use English in real life communication situations. Assessment should focus on the student's overall language proficiency rather than on specific components of language skills, such as pronunciation and sound discrimination, or the student's knowledge about language, including grammatical rules and vocabulary items.

4. **Assessment for Achievement in Mainstream Programs**

Achievement testing in other subject areas presents special problems for the LPE student who may, in fact, have internalized the required concepts, but lacks the language facility

to express this knowledge. It may be necessary to modify testing procedures for these students by:

a) allowing students to take an oral rather than a written test

b) permitting the use of a dictionary during tests

c) giving the students a longer time in which to complete a test

d) using short answer or multiple choice formats where appropriate

e) grading a student's answers for content rather than linguistic accuracy

f) making allowances for spelling and grammatical errors in a testing situation

g) allowing students to answer test questions in their native language

In promoting a student at the end of the term, the student's potential as well as the student's present level of achievement should be considered. A student who appears unlikely to succeed at the next level for reasons of language alone should be provided with language assistance and allowed to attempt further study in that area rather than repeating the course. These students should not be given a grade, but an anecdotal report outlining progress to date and a recommendation to continue in the course at the same level in order to allay feelings of failure and discouragement.

5. Assessment for Aptitude

I.Q. and other standardized tests are sometimes used to predict student success in a particular program. However, because of their cultural bias and the considerable use of language in directions and test items, these tests should be used judiciously with LPE students. These tests will seldom give an accurate measure of the student's aptitude and potential. Under no circumstances should placement be based solely on such tests. A more appropriate measure of aptitude for LPE students is a measure of rate of progress. For example, an I.Q. test administered to an ESL student will usually show a score far below grade level. A repeat testing after a year of language support may not yet accurately reflect the student's potential, but should indicate some measure of progress. If students fail to show progress over a long period of time, sources of difficulty other than language should be investigated.

6. Assessment of Program Effectiveness

Tests of student achievement are also indicators of program effectiveness. At the conclusion of each testing period, student test results should be reviewed in relation to the program goals and objectives. The pattern of student scores may indicate a need for modification in testing procedures or program design.

LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT

A first consideration in language assessment is the formulation of objectives at each level of the language program and the clarification of minimal expectations for entry into main- stream courses. These objectives should reflect the communication needs of the students and are usually organized by skill area.

For example, speaking objectives for beginning ESL students might include being able to give basic personal information (name, address), being able to ask for directions or to request certain services in the school office. Students entering a mainstream social studies course might be expected to be able to recount a sequence of events, to explain cause and effect relationships, or to use appropriate vocabulary for describing a variety of landforms. Testing should then attempt to measure the student's ability to use language for these purposes.

Students should be aware of the communicative aims of the language program and that assessment will try to establish increased ability in the use of English. While language programs include activities which isolate various aspects of language such as grammar, pronunciation, spelling, and phonics, these should not be the focus of the teaching or testing process. Testing of subskills is more appropriately done for diagnostic purposes and the planning of remedial activities. Classroom activities should emphasize the development of communication skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing. Testing procedures should then reflect this emphasis and measure the student's overall or global proficiency in language.

The language assessment procedures outlined in this chapter test the student's ability to use language for communicative purposes as they might be expected to use language in real life situations in and out of school. The testing procedures suggested can be used for the purposes of placement in language and mainstream programs, assessing achievement in language skill development, program evaluation and, in combination with an error analysis of a student's test production, for diagnostic purposes.

In the discussion which follows, language skill areas have been treated separately. However, it is not always possible or necessary to test skills in isolation. Speaking and listening comprehension are frequently tested together in an interview situation; reading and writing through dictation or cloze. Where the intent is to isolate one skill for testing, care should be taken to focus on that skill alone. For example, a test of reading comprehension should not require students to write sentence or paragraph answers based on a reading passage. It would then be difficult to determine if a poor response were the result of a problem in reading

comprehension or written expression. A more appropriate procedure for testing reading comprehension would be to provide students with a multiple choice, true-false, or a sequencing activity based on the passage.

1. Tests of Listening Comprehension

Tests of listening comprehension should measure the student's ability to comprehend the kind of language likely to be encountered both in and out of school. A variety of listening tasks can be used for this purpose. Student responses may be given non-verbally, by selecting multiple-choice answers, verbally, or in writing, but care should be taken to ensure that the response made does not mask the student's level of comprehension.

1.1 Following directions

Students may be given directions of varying complexity and expected to carry them out. Directions may be as simple as "Close the door.", or as complex as a procedure for performing a science experiment.

1.2 Sentence Comprehension

Students hear a question and then choose the best answer.

T: "Where did you buy that sweater?"

S: (Chooses from the following list)

a) On Tuesday.

b) At Eaton's.

c) Yes, I did.

d) Ten dollars.

Students hear a sentence and choose the best response.

T: Unlike his brother, John is very shy.

S: (Chooses from the following list)

a) John is shy, but his brother is not.

b) John's brother is shy, but John is not.

c) John and his brother are both shy.

d) Neither John nor his brother is shy.

Students listen to a recording of a short monologue or conversation and answer questions based on it or choose a summary statement of it.

Dialogue:

Ann: John, can you help me with this assignment?

John: I am not very good at math, Ann. I failed last semester. Why don't you ask your sister for help?

Ann: I would, but she's out of town. Maybe I'll see the teacher in the morning.

Question: Who is the best math student?

(Student chooses from the following list)

a) Ann.

b) John.

c) John's sister.

d) Ann's sister.

Question: Which sentence best summarizes the dialogue?

(Student chooses from the following list)

a) Ann needs help with math so she will ask her sister for help.

b) Ann needs help with math so she will ask John for help.

c) Ann needs help with math so she will ask her teacher for help.

Exercises of this kind can be adapted to content from a variety of subject areas.

1.3 Listening Passages

Students may listen to a passage and answer questions based on it. Questions may be answered orally or by choosing from a list of multiple choice items.

For example, before listening to the passage below students could be given the multiple choice questions to look over. The passage is then read, or played, to the students who choose the correct responses.

MONOLOG[45]

The stewardess had a hectic time on a trip from one coast to the other. There were lots of air pockets and the plane kept going up and down and with all the passengers filling the plane, and trying to serve them food and drink. It was just a real bad time for her. To make matters worse, there were lots of passengers who were complaining, asking for blankets and glasses of water and aspirin and magazines and the poor stewardess was just totally exhausted. Well, making matters even worse, was this kid running up and down the aisle shouting and hitting people and making all sorts of noise. And at one point he even knocked the stewardess almost into the lap of a sleeping gentleman. Well, when this happened, she bent down after spending a long, hard trip and she smiled sweetly and whispered in the child's ear, "Little boy, why don't you go and play outside?"

Read these five statements about the monolog. Listen to the passage as many times as needed. Then choose the best answer for each of the statements, and write the word in the space.

1. The flight attendant was very _____.
   a. happy
   b. sad
   c. sleepy
   d. busy

2. During the flight there were many problems. One of these was _____.
   a. a small boy
   b. a sleeping gentleman
   c. trouble with the engine
   d. trouble with the movie

3. A small boy _____ the flight attendant and she almost fell on someone.
   a. threw a magazine at
   b. poured water on
   c. ran into
   d. pointed to

4. At home parents sometimes tell _____children to go play outside.
   a. polite
   b. noisy
   c. sick
   d. shy

5. Even though the flight attendant and the little boy were on an airplane she told him to _____.
   a. read a magazine
   b. play outside
   c. sit down
   d. be quiet

This type of exercise may be used at any level by varying the difficulty of the passage and the questions. Appropriate passages could range from simple anecdotal stories to formal lectures.

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45 Adapted from Gary James, Charles G. Whitely and Sharon Bode. Listening In and Speaking Out. Longman, 1980 p. 73.

1.4 Dictation

Depending on the manner in which it is presented and scored, dictation may provide a measure of listening comprehension. A dictation passage used for this purpose is read through once in its entirety at normal speed. The sentences are then delivered one at a time at normal speed allowing students time to write. Punctuation may or may not be given. The passage is then read through once again at normal speed to allow students to check their writing.

A simple method of scoring is to count the number of words in the passage and deduct one point for each word reproduced incorrectly, for each word omitted, and for any words added to the original passage. The level of difficulty of a dictation test can be adjusted by choosing passages at various levels or by delivering the passage in shorter or longer segments.

1.5 Interview

Students' responses to questions in an interview will also give a measure of listening comprehension. By interviewing students on a variety of topics, their level of listening comprehension can be ascertained.

2. Speaking Tests

Ability to communicate in oral English can be measured in many ways, the most direct being the observation of the student in a variety of situations. However, this is time consuming and often impractical in the school situation. The following procedures may also be used to test speaking ability.

2.1 Kinds of Speaking Tests

A. Role Play

Students may be given information about a situation, assigned a role and directed to act out the ensuing conversation with another student or the teacher.

Situation: You have just arrived late for class on the day of a test. Explain to your teacher why you were late and why you should be allowed to write the test. You are a good student and are rarely late or absent. You have a legitimate reason for being late today.

B. Interview

By engaging the student in conversation about a variety of topics a great deal can be learned about speaking ability.

The interview should begin with routine questions to put the student at ease. Questions should become progressively more difficult as the interview progresses. Care should be taken to test language not content, and to use questions which cannot be answered by a single word response. Content questions, such as "Who is the Prime Minister of Canada?", and yes-no questions such as "Do you have a car?" are not appropriate items for a test of speaking ability.

Questions should be planned in a sequence so that conversation flows naturally and requires the student to give long rather than one-word answers. It is not necessary for students to answer in complete sentences. The criterion for acceptable responses should be the naturalness of the answer. For example, in answer to a question such as "Where do you live?", "100 Main Street" is an acceptable response. Requests such as "Tell me about your family?" will require a reply of several sentences.

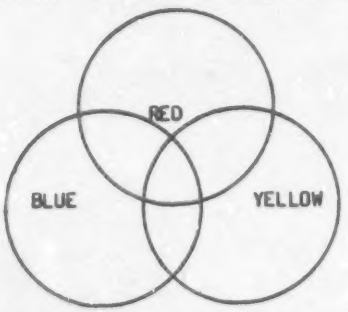
C. Extended Speaking Activities

Narration and Explanation

a) Narration. Students can be asked to retell a short story or an episode from a longer story.

b) Explanation. In a subject area class, the student may be given a diagram or picture related to a familiar topic and asked to explain it to another student.

This is a diagram showing the effects of mixing primary colors. Use the diagram to explain to another student what happens when colors are mixed.



D. Scoring Oral Tests

Oral tests can either be scored at the time of the test, or tape recorded for scoring later. Results are more reliable if more than one person can score each test and the scores then compared. If scoring is done at the time of the test, it should be done as unobtrusively as possible, preferably only at the end of the test.

Oral tests can be scored for a number of criteria including fluency, accuracy, pronunciation, vocabulary, and general communicative ability. The subscores provide the teacher with valuable diagnostic information.

Before the test, the scoring categories should be decided and a list of criteria drawn up. Scores can be recorded on a recording sheet. After the test, the scores and the tape itself, if one has been made, can be reviewed with the student.

The recording form below could be used with the "Sample Oral English Rating Scale" on page 186.

ORAL TEST DATE _____

Name _____ Level _____ Room _____

Pronunciation _____ Grammar _____ Vocabulary _____ Fluency _____ Comprehension _____
5 5 5 5 5

Comments:

Final Score _____ Interviewer _____
25

Sample Oral English Rating Scale[46]

Pronunciation

5 Has few traces of an accent.
4 Always intelligible, though one is conscious of a definite accent.
3 Pronunciation problems necessitate concentrated listening and occasionally lead to misunderstanding.
2 Very hard to understand because of pronunciation problems. Must frequently be asked to repeat.
1 Pronunciation problems are so severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.

Grammar

5 Makes few (if any) noticeable errors of grammar or word order.
4 Occasionally makes grammatical and/or word-order errors which do not, however, obscure meaning.
3 Makes frequent errors of grammar and word order which occasionally obscure meaning.
2 Grammar and word-order errors make comprehension difficult. Must often rephrase sentences and/or restrict speech to basic patterns.
1 Errors in grammar and word order so severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.

Vocabulary

5 Use of vocabulary and idioms is virtually that of a native speaker.
4 Sometimes uses inappropriate terms and/or must rephrase ideas because of lexical inadequacies.
3 Frequently uses the wrong words; conversation somewhat limited because of inadequate vocabulary.
2 Misuse of words and very limited vocabulary make comprehension quite difficult.
1 Vocabulary limitations so extreme as to make conversation virtually impossible.

Fluency

5 Speech as fluent and effortless as that of a native speaker.
4 Speed of speech seems to be slightly affected by language problems.
3 Speed and fluency are rather strongly affected by language problems.
2 Usually hesitant; often forced into silence by language limitations (prolonged pauses).
1 Speech is so halting and fragmentary as to make conversation virtually impossible.

Comprehension

5 Appears to understand everything without difficulty.
4 Understands nearly everything at normal speed although occasional repetition may be necessary.
3 Understands most of what is said at slower-than-normal speed with repetitions.
2 Has great difficulty following what is said. Can comprehend only "social conversation" spoken slowly and with frequent repetitions.
1 Cannot be said to understand even simple conversational English.

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[46] Adapted from John Oller, Language Tests at School. Longman, 1979. pp. 321-323.

3. Reading Tests

Standardized tests of reading which give a grade equivalent score are of limited use with LPE students. Reading passages often deal with subjects which are not part of the student's background experiences. Vocabulary and time constraints also work to the student's disadvantage. A more realistic way to test reading proficiency is to assess the student's ability to deal with materials actually used in school.

3.1 Cloze

The cloze passage, described in detail as a strategy for teaching reading (see page 74) is also a useful device for testing a student's ability to deal with the syntax and literal meaning of a passage.

Construction of a cloze test is a simple procedure. A passage at the level of difficulty at which the student is expected to perform independently is selected. For example, if a student is to be placed in a grade 8 social studies class, a passage from the grade 8 text could be chosen. The first and last sentence of the passage are left intact. Between the first and last sentences, words are deleted at regular intervals, usually every fifth word, although every 6th, 7th, 8th, or "n"th word, may be deleted. The passage should be long enough to allow for at least 30 deletions. The blanks should be of a uniform size so that length will not be a clue to the missing word.

Students are given the test and encouraged to read the passage through in its entirety. Students should then be allowed as long as necessary to record the missing words. Because the blanks are distributed regularly throughout the passage, a combination of content and function words will be missing. The student must make use of both syntactic and semantic clues to complete the passage. The student is forced to consider the meaning of the sentence, a whole paragraph, and the passage in its entirety, to find appropriate answers.

Usually answers are scored for exact replacements only, although allowances can be made for other appropriate responses. A percentage score is then obtained. In interpreting the scores, the following formula is usually accepted based on deletion of every 5th word, exact replacements only.

0 - 44%	Frustration
44 - 53%	Instruction
53 - 100%	Independence

A student scoring above 53% could presumably handle comparable reading material independently. Students with scores below 44% are probably not yet ready to deal with comparable materials at this point in time. Students with scores between the 44% and 53% can presumably profit from instruction using comparable materials.[47]

3.2 Sight Passages

A student's ability to handle reading material at any level in greater depth can be assessed by administering a passage at the level of difficulty at which the student is expected to perform followed by questions at literal and inferential levels. Questions should follow a multiple choice format to allow students whose written expression may be limited to answer acceptably. Questions should also include items which test the student's ability to derive meaning of vocabulary items from context, find pronoun referents, find main idea, understand related details, and grasp literal and implied meanings.

Read the following passage and answer the questions which follow.

GUILTY?[48]

It was very hot in the small courtroom and everybody was feeling sleepy. After a tiring morning, the clerks were anxious to get off for lunch, and even the judge must have felt relieved when the last case came up before the court. A short, middle-aged man with gray hair and small blue eyes was now standing before him. The man had a peculiar look on his face and he kept looking around the courtroom as if he was trying very hard to figure out what was going on.

The man was accused of breaking into a house and stealing an inexpensive wristwatch. The witness who was called did not give a very clear account of what had happened. He claimed to have seen a man outside the house that night, but on being questioned further, he confessed that he was not sure whether this was the man or not. The judge considered the matter for a short time and then declared that since there was no real proof, the man could not be found guilty of any crime. He said that the case was dismissed and then rose to go. Meanwhile, the defendant looked very puzzled. It was clear from the expression on his face that he had not understood a thing. Noticing this, the judge paused for a moment and then the man looked at the judge and said, "Excuse me, your honor, but do I have to give the watch back or not?"

[47] Adapted from John Oller, Language Tests at School. Longman, 1979. pp. 321-323.
[48] L.G. Alexander, E.T. Cornelius, COMP. Longman, 1978. p.72.

1. This story takes place in
   a) a courtroom.
   b) a house.
   c) a jail.

2. The word in the second paragraph which means a person who has seen something happen is _____.

3. The pronoun "him" in line 7 refers to _____.

4. This story takes place in the summer.

   Yes No Does not say

5. The story suggests that
   a) the judge studied the case carefully.
   b) the defendant was an experienced thief.
   c) the judge was not very interested in this case.

6. The defendant (the man who was accused of the crime) was puzzled because
   a) he did not understand English very well.
   b) he did not understand what was happening.
   c) he was not very intelligent.

7. Why did the judge dismiss the case?
   a) There was no proof that the man had stolen the watch.
   b) The judge was hot and tired and it was time for lunch.
   c) The defendant did not understand what was happening in the courtroom.

8. The judge decided that
   a) the man was guilty of stealing the watch.
   b) the man was not guilty of stealing the watch.

9. Which is right?
   a) The man was guilty of stealing the watch.
   b) The man was not guilty of stealing the watch.

10. On the whole, this story is about
   a) a clever thief.
   b) a kind judge.
   c) a misunderstanding.

4. Writing Tests

Testing a student's ability to write in English is best done by giving the student a task which requires the effective communication of ideas in written English. The student can be given questions, a story, a letter, an expository paragraph or a longer composition to complete. Topics assigned should be within the range of experience of the student and tasks should represent those realistically expected of a secondary school student. The student should be given a sufficient length of time to plan the composition, write a first draft and then to revise it. The student should be allowed to use a dictionary throughout the exercise.

In scoring the student's production, teachers should consider the quality of the ideas expressed, the clarity of expression, and the correctness of language. A marking scheme similar to the one presented on page 133 may be used.

5. Interpretation of Test Results

Testing of the nature described above performs many functions. If the objectives of a language program and language expectations for entry into mainstream programs are clearly set out in communicative terms, skill testing can help to place students in appropriate programs. The same kinds of tests administered at regular intervals can give students and teachers a measure of student achievement and provide valuable information for program evaluation.

For the purpose of diagnosis, these tests provide a wealth of information to the teacher and the student. A profile of student strengths and weaknesses can be constructed, so that students who are weak in one or more areas but strong in others can concentrate on problem areas. Further, since language learning is a process of reconstructing the grammar of language, students' errors will reflect the current rule system under which they are operating. Error analysis, the study of errors in the language learner's natural production and a search for the causes of those errors, can illuminate misconceptions students may have, consciously or unconsciously, and help the teacher in planning activities which will lead the student closer to proficiency.

6. Reporting to Parents

Reporting to students and parents should be a continuation of the contact established at the time of the initial interview. It is helpful to arrange an interview with the parent or support agency counsellor soon after each reporting session to clarify information on the report card, and to be sure that the report has indeed reached the parent. Translation of the report may be necessary or the assistance of an interpreter enlisted.[49] In addition to the regular school report form, it is useful to provide students in transition or ESL programs with an additional form detailing progress in learning English. This report should highlight the student's strengths and weaknesses and help to set the direction for further language study.

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[49] see Appendix A.1

APPENDIX

A.1 Translation and Interpretation Services
A.2 Reception Information Sheet for Immigrant Students
A.3 Reception Information Sheet for Native Students

B.1 Categorization of Native Peoples
B.2 Support Services for Native Students
B.3 Support Agencies for Native Students
B.4 Band-Operated, Federal and Frontier Schools within Manitoba
B.5 Student Aid for Native Students
B.6 Resource Assistance for Secondary School Students and Staffs

C. Sections of the Administrative Handbook

D. Resources

TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION SERVICES

The Language Bank,
Co-ordinator: Naomi Permut
International Centre
700 Eglin Avenue
Winnipeg
(204) 772-0346 (24 hour answering service)

In Manitoba, Native people belong to one of three, distinct, linguistic families:

1. Algonkian (Cree, Ojibway/Saulteaux, Island Lake Saulteaux/Cree)
2. Siouan (Dakota)
3. Athapaskan (Chipewyan)

Assistance may be obtained through the Native Language Consultants, Native Education Branch, Manitoba Department of Education.

Reception Information Sheet for Immigrant Students

Initial Interview

Date _____

Student's Name _____ Birthdate _____

Address _____ Postal Code _____

Telephone No. _____ Marital Status _____

Place of Work _____ Telephone No. _____

Country of Origin _____ Arrival Date _____

Language(s) _____ Visa Status _____

Father _____ Language(s) _____

Occupation _____ Bus. Phone _____

Mother _____ Language(s) _____

Occupation _____ Bus. Ph. _____

Brothers and Sisters (names, ages) _____

Interpreter (or contact) _____

Address _____ Tel. _____ Relationship _____

Last School _____ Grade (years) _____

Transcript _____ Standing Granted _____

Previous E.S.L. Training _____ Where? _____ How Long? _____

Home School _____ Referred by _____

Health Concerns _____

Interests - Academic _____

Sports/Hobbies _____

Work Experience _____

Future Plans _____

Assessment - Oral Proficiency (based on interview) _____

_____

_____

Tests _____

_____

_____

Initial Placement _____

_____

_____

COMMENTS

Interviewer _____

Reception Information Sheet for Native Students

Initial Interview

Date _____

Student's Name _____ Birthdate _____

Address _____ Postal Code _____

Telephone No. _____ Marital Status _____

Place of Work _____ Telephone No. _____

Language(s) _____

Father _____ Language(s) _____

Address _____ Postal Code _____

Occupation _____ Bus. Phone _____

Mother _____ Language(s) _____

Address _____ Postal Code _____

Occupation _____ Bus. Phone _____

Brothers and Sisters (names, ages) _____

Non-Resident Students:

House Parent(s) (if applicable) _____

Address _____

Name of Sponsoring Agency _____ Telephone No. _____

Contact Person _____ Telephone No. _____

Last School _____ Grade (years) _____

Transcript _____ Standing Granted _____

Sending Counsellor _____

Health Concerns _____

Interests - Academic _____

Sports/Hobbies _____

Work Experience _____

Future Plans _____

Assessment - Oral Proficiency (based on interview) _____

_____

_____

Tests _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Initial Placement _____

_____

_____

_____

COMMENTS

Interviewer _____

CATEGORIZATION OF NATIVE PEOPLES

STATUS OR REGISTERED INDIAN

A Status or Registered Indian is a person recorded as an Indian in the Indian Register. This registration is the responsibility of an offficial of Indian and Northern Affairs Canada in Ottawa, designated the Registrar of Indians under an Act of Parliament. The Registrar determines who is and who is not a registered Indian and has the authority to take people off the Indian Register or add names to the list. Most registered Indians are members of an Indian band, but some who belong to no band, are placed on a General List. Individuals are entitled to be registered by virtue of their descent from registered Indians.

Eligibility:

According to the Indian Act, a person is entitled to be registered if he or she:

1. Was considered to be entitled to hold, use or enjoy lands belonging to tribes, bands or other bodies of Indians in Canada as of May 26, 1874. It was based on An Act Providing for the Organization of the Department of the Secretary of State of Canada and for the Management of Indians and Ordnance Lands.
2. Is a member of a band for whose use and benefit in common, lands were set apart or have been agreed to by treaty to be set apart since May 26, 1874 or which has been declared by the Governor in Council to be a band within the Indian Act.
3. Is a male person who is a direct descendent in the male line of a male person described in 1 or 2.
4. Is a legitimate child of a male person described above or a person described in 3.
5. Is the illegitimate child of a female person described in 1, 2 or 4, unless disqualified by certain other considerations specified in the Indian Act.
6. Is the wife or the widow of a person entitled to be registered under any of the above.

TREATY INDIAN

A member of a band of Indians which was a signatory to a Treaty with the Government of Canada. Approximately 50 percent of registered Indians in Canada are Treaty Indians. However, in the prairie provinces, where most come under treaties, the term Treaty Indian is often used instead of registered Indian or status Indian.

NON-TREATY INDIAN

A person who is registered as an Indian on the General List, or as a member of an Indian band that is not a signatory to a Treaty (eg. the Sioux in Manitoba). In the prairie provinces the term is generally used to refer to a person of Indian ancestry who is not entitled to be registered as an Indian under the Indian Act. Hence, the term Non-Treaty Indian is often mistakenly used to denote a non-Status Indian and the two are often used interchangeably.

NON-STATUS INDIAN

A person of Indian ancestry who is not registered as an Indian. There are various reasons why persons of Indian ancestry may not be registered as Indians. For example, they may be persons or descendants of persons who relinquished their rights to be registered through enfranchisement, or who lost their entitlement through marriage to non-Indians or who for various reasons were not registered.

METIS

A person of mixed ancestry (e.g. Euro-Canadian and Indian) who is not entitled to be registered as an Indian under the provisions of the Indian Act. However, the Métis Population Betterment Act of 1940 defined Métis as a person of mixed white and Indian blood and having not less than one-quarter Indian blood. In some situations today it is taken to mean any person of mixed non-Native and Indian ancestry, regardless of blood percentage.

ENFRANCHISED INDIAN

A person who has been declared enfranchised by Order in Council and is no longer entitled to be registered as an Indian. An enfranchised Indian therefore becomes a non-Status Indian.

SUPPORT SERVICES FOR NATIVE STUDENTS

The federal Department of Indian Affairs has responsibility for all education of status Indians on reserves. Secondary students may receive financial assistance through their Tribal Council Education Department, the Manitoba Indian Education Association, Inc., or the federal Department of Indian Affairs. Students apply for assistance to the jurisdiction that directs the funding for their particular reserve. Students may receive assistance for books and school supplies, clothing, transportation, accommodation and an allowance for personal needs.

Status Indian students who live permanently on a reserve are not eligible for Manitoba government bursaries.

Many status Indian students who are permanent residents on a reserve enroll in schools outside their community for educational opportunities not available locally. Status Indian students, who are permanent residents of a reserve and who are attending school off the reserve, may be sponsored and given assistance as outlined for status Indian students attending school on the reserve, except in the case of the Department of Indian Affairs which does not fund Native students attending schools off the reserve. Appendix B.3 lists the names and addresses of sponsoring and support agencies for status Indian students.

Métis, non-Status and Status Indian Students, who live permanently off the reserve, are not normally sponsored as are permanent residents of reserves, but they do qualify for Student Aid bursaries of $275. - $500. per year. (See Appendix B.5) Students are also eligible for the Special Opportunity Bursary Awards of $100. per year available from the Student Aid Branch. It is crucial that students apply early for Student Aid. Schools are encouraged to provide students with Student Aid application forms at the time of registration.

SUPPORT SERVICES FOR STATUS INDIAN STUDENTS ATTENDING OFF-RESERVE SCHOOLS

The sending counsellor/advisor or home/school co-ordinator in the home community initiates the application process of students, determines eligibility for financial assistance, provides career counselling services and liaison with the student's home. Students should be PRE-REGISTERED to ensure full course selection is available to accommodate their needs and career plans. The receiving counsellor/advisor should then be informed of the student's plans and arrival.

The receiving counsellor/advisor initially orients the student to the community, arranges for suitable home or residence placement, assists the students with registration in an appropriate educational facility and can provide information on who pays the non-resident fees. On-going services are also provided to the student.

TREATY/STATUS INDIAN SUPPORT SERVICE AGENCIES

The Manitoba Indian Education Association, Inc.
301-294 Portage Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3C 0B9 947-0421

TRIBAL COUNCIL EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS

Dakota Ojibway Tribal Council
702 Douglas Street
P.O. Box 322
Brandon, Manitoba
R7A 5Z2 (725-3560)

Interlake Reserves Tribal Council
Box 218
Ashern, Manitoba
R0C 0E0 (768-3062)

Island Lake Tribal Council
Island Lake, Manitoba

Keewatin Tribal Council
145-14 Caribou Road
Evergreen Place
Thompson, Manitoba
R8N 0L3 (677-2341)

Southeast Resource Development Council
201-511 Ellice Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3B 1Y8 (477-6050)

Swampy Cree Tribal Council
Box 336
The Pas, Manitoba
R9A 1K5 (623-3423)

West Region Tribal Council
21-4th Avenue, N.W.
Dauphin, Manitoba
R7N 1H9 (638-8225)

NON-STATUS INDIAN AND METIS STUDENT SUPPORT SERVICE AGENCIES

Only Frontier S.D. students on the home place program are eligible for support services.

Frontier School Division No. 48
Student Placement Services
1402 Notre Dame Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3E 3G5 (775-9741)

BAND-OPERATED, FEDERAL AND FRONTIER SCHOOLS WITHIN MANITOBA

Many non-resident Native Students may come from schools within Band-Operated, Federal or Frontier School Division jurisdictions. The following information is provided to facilitate communication between receiving and home schools.

BAND-OPERATED SCHOOLS

GRADES	TELEPHONE NUMBER	NAME OF SCHOOL
1 - 8	Dial 0 (3030)	Anama Bay School, Gypsumville P. O., Manitoba ROC 1JO
N - 9	367-8223	Anicinabe School, (Fort Alexander Band) Box 219, Pine Falls, Manitoba ROE 1MO
S - S	568-4561	Birdtail Sioux Alternate School, Beulah ROM 0BO
N - K	568-4634	Birdtail Sioux N & K School, Beulah, Manitoba ROM 0BO
K - 6	857-3393	Dakota Tipi School, Dakota Tipi Reserve, Box 841, Portage la Prairie, R1N 3C3
N - 7		Dakota Plains School, Edwin, Manitoba ROH 0GO
9 - 12	367-8261	Fort Alexander High School (Fort Alexander Band), Pine Falls, Manitoba ROE 1MO
N - 9	427-2490	Ginew Demonstration School, Roseau River Reserve, Box 9, Dominion City, Manitoba ROA 0HO
N - 9	836-2332	Indian Springs School, (Swan Lake Band) P.O. Box 1, Mariapolis, Man. ROK 1KO
N - 9	Dial 0 (1021)	Jackhead School, Dallas, Manitoba ROC 0SO
N - 12	329-2115	E. J. Johnson School, Easterville, Manitoba ROC 0VO
N - 8	252-2731	Kish-ke-me-qua School, Long Plain Reserve, General Delivery, Edwin, Manitoba ROH 0GO
N - 12	768-2728	Lake Manitoba School, Box 70, Erikedale, Manitoba ROC 0WO
N - 8	Dial 0 (1020)	Little Black River School, O'Hanley, Manitoba ROE 1KO
K - 9	397-2199	Little Grand Rapids School, Little Grand Rapids, Manitoba ROB 0VO
K - 9	276-2012	Miskooseepi School, Bloodvein, Manitoba ROC 0JO
S - S	632-5965	Otineka Mall Alternate School, (The Pas Band), The Pas, Manitoba R9A 1K4
N - K	632-5965	Otineka Mall N & K School, (The Pas Band), The Pas, Manitoba R9A 1K4
N - 12	645-2164	Peguis Central School, Box 220, Hodgson, Manitoba ROC 1NO
N - 6	397-1002	Pauingassi School, Box 580, Pine Falls, Manitoba ROE 1MO
N - 9	244-2113	Poplar River School, Neeginan P.O., Manitoba ROB 0ZO
N - 9	484-2242	Roland Lauze School, Nelson House, Manitoba ROB 1AO
10 - 12	367-2588	Sagkeeng Consolidated School,(Fort Alexander Band) Box 610, Pine Falls, ROE 1MO
N - 12	843-2407	Sandy Bay School, Marius P. O., Manitoba ROH 0TO
N - 12	659-5708	Stedman School, Fairford, Manitoba ROC 0XO
N - 3	855-2536	Ta-tiyopa-maza School, Sioux Valley Reserve, Griswold, Manitoba ROM 0XO
N - K	543-2287	Valley River N & K, Valley River Reserve, Shortdale, Manitoba ROL 1WO
N -	859-2293	Waywayseecappo Community School, Waywayseecappo Reserve, Rossburn, Manitoba ROJ 1VO

FEDERAL SCHOOLS

GRADES	TELEPHONE NUMBER	NAME OF SCHOOL
N - 9	676-2050	Cross Lake School, Cross Lake, Manitoba R0B 0J0
N - 12	645-2206	Fisher River School, Koostatak, Manitoba R0C 1S0
N - 10	456-2391	Garden Hill School, Island Lake, Manitoba R0B 0T0
N - 11	457-2493	George Knott School, Wasagamach Bay P. O., Manitoba R0B 1Z0
N - 11	335-2003	God's Narrows School, God's Narrows, Manitoba R0B 0W0
N - 9	Dial 0 (5020)	God's River School, God's River, Manitoba R0B 0N0
N - 8	Dial 0	Lac Brochet School, Brochet, Manitoba R0B 0B0
N - 8	659-5774	Lake St. Martin School, Gypsumville P. O., Manitoba R0C 1J0
N - 6	659-2672	Little Saskatchewan School, Gypsumville, Manitoba R0C 1J0
N - 12	538-2318	Oxford House School, Oxford House, Manitoba R0B 1C0
N - 9	524-2318	Pine Creek School, Box 130, Camperville, Manitoba R0L 0J0
K - 9	553-2163	Pukatawagan School, Pukatawagan, Manitoba R0B 1G0
N - 9	469-5302	Red Sucker Lake School, Red Sucker Lake, Manitoba R0B 1H0
N - 9	Dial 0	Shamattawa School, Shamattawa, Manitoba R0B 1K0
N - 9	Dial 0 (5020)	Split Lake School, Split Lake, Manitoba R0B 1P0
N - 10	462-2087	St. Theresa School, St. Theresa Point, Manitoba R0B 1J0
K - 5	Dial 0	Tadoule Lake School, Box 840, Lynn Lake, Manitoba R3N 0W0
K - 8	Dial 0 (5012)	York Landing School, York Landing, Manitoba R0B 0S0

FRONTIER SCHOOL DIVISION NO. 48

GRADES	TELEPHONE NUMBER	NAME OF SCHOOL
K - 8	232-6246	Barrows Junction School, Barrows Junction, Manitoba R0L 0B0
N - 12	382-2153	Berens River School, Berens River, Manitoba R0B 0A0
K - 8	Dial 0 (1020)	Big Black River School, Negginan, Manitoba R0B 0Z0
N - 9	Dial 0	Brochet School, Brochet, Manitoba R0B 0B0
N - 8	Dial 0 (5030)	Cold Lake School, Sherridon, Manitoba R0B 1L0
N - 9	357-2225	Cormorant Lake School, Cormorant, Manitoba R0B 0G0
N - 6	472-3250	Cranberry Portage Elementary, Cranberry Portage, Manitoba R0B 0H0
N - 9	732-2750	Crane River School, Crane River, Manitoba R0L 0M0
N - 9	524-2394	Duck Bay School, Duck Bay, Manitoba R0L 0N0
		Ebb and Flow
7 - 12	472-3431	Frontier Collegiate Institute, Cranberry Portage, Manitoba R0B 0H0
N - 12	652-2193	Gillam School, P.O. Box 370, Gillam, Manitoba R0B 0L0
N - 12	639-2451	Grand Rapids School, Grand Rapids, Manitoba R0C 1E0
K - 8	Dial 0	Granville Lake School, Granville Lake, Manitoba R0B 0P0
K - 9		D.R. Hamilton School, Cross Lake, Manitoba R0B 0J0
N - 9	359-6559	Jack River School, Norway House, Manitoba R0B 1B0
K - 8	288-4355	Julie Lindal School, Ilford, Manitoba R0B 0S0
K - 10	Dial 0 (1020)	Matheson Island School, Matheson Island, Manitoba R0C 2A0
N - 9	678-2353	Moose Lake School, Moose Lake, Manitoba R0B 0Y0
7 - 12	359-6761	Norway House High School, Norway House, Manitoba R0B 1B0
N - 9	374-2056	Oscar Blackburn School, South Indian Lake, Manitoba R0B 1N0
N - 8	587-2131	Pelican Rapids School, Pelican Rapids, Manitoba R0L 1L0
K - 8	458-2471	Pikwitonei School, Pikwitonei, Manitoba R0B 1E0
1 - 9	Dial 0 (1020)	Pine Dock School, Little Bullhead, Manitoba R0C 1V0
K - 8	Dial 0 (1020)	Princess Harbour School, Princess Harbour, Manitoba R0C 2P0
N - 6	359-6336	Rossville Elementary School, Norway House, Manitoba R0B 1B0
K - 6	277-5277	San Antonio School, Bissett, Manitoba R0E 0J0
K - 8	456-2786	Stevenson Island School, Island Lake, Manitoba R0B 0T0
1 - 8	486-2018	Sundance School, Sundance, Manitoba R0B 2A0
N - 8	286-3264	Thicket Portage Elementary School, Thicket Portage, Manitoba R0B 1R0
N - 12	689-2620	Wabowden School, Wabowden, Manitoba R0B 1S0
N - 12	363-7253	Wanipigow School, Wanipigow, Manitoba R0E 2E0
K - 9	Dial 0 (5020)	Warren Landing School, Warren Landing, Manitoba R0B 1B0
N - 9	628-3443	Waterhen School, Waterhen, Manitoba R0L 2C0

STUDENT AID FOR NATIVE STUDENTS

Several special programs are available to financially assist Native students attending high school or post-secondary institutions. These awards are provided in addition to assistance available under the regular Student Aid Program. All awards are based on a careful assessment of the applicant's costs and resources.

More information on financial assistance and counselling services is available from the Community Contact Officer at the Student Aid Branch.
Phone 944-6368
Toll-free 1-800-782-0316

The secondary school program provides bursaries of $275 to $550 per year to students in grades 9 to 12 in Manitoba public schools. These awards supplement, but do not replace, the resources of the student and those of his or her family.

To be eligible for a bursary, the student must:

- be a resident of Manitoba,
- attend a public high school in Manitoba,
- enroll in at least 60% of a full course load in grades 9 to 12
- demonstrate financial need.

TO AVOID DELAYS AND DISAPPOINTMENTS, STUDENTS SHOULD APPLY FOR ASSISTANCE AT LEAST TWO MONTHS BEFORE THE PLANNED REGISTRATION DATE.

METIS AND NON-STATUS INDIAN STUDENTS

Métis and non-Status Indian students who qualify for the regular high school bursary also qualify for Special Opportunity Bursary awards of $100 per year. Because these funds are limited, students are encouraged to apply early.

To apply for this award, students must the Student Aid application. The student must also state that they are of Métis or non-Status Indian ancestry.

	HOME	AWAY
Regular High School Bursary	$275	$550
Special Opportunity Métis Bursary	$100	$100
TOTAL AWARD	$375	$650

NATIVE STUDENTS

Registered Indian students who live permanently off reserve and who do not receive assistance from the Government of Canada are eligible for regular high school bursaries and Special Opportunity bursary awards of $100 per year.

To be considered for this award, the student must check the appropriate box of the Student Aid application. Awards are made to students whose names appear in the Department of Indian and Northern Affairs registered Indian band listing.

Funding for Registered Indians who live permanently on a reserve is the responsibility of the Government of Canada; they are not eligible for assistance from the Manitoba Government Bursary program.

	HOME	AWAY
Regular High School Bursary	$275	$550
Special Opportunity Native Bursary	$100	$100
	$375	$650

RESOURCE ASSISTANCE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS AND STAFFS

First Nations Confederacy, Inc.
274 Garry Street
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3C 1H5
Phone 944-8245

Manitoba Indian Education Association, Inc.
301 - 294 Portage Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba R3C 0B9
Phone 947-0421
Contact Person: Director of Student Services

Manitoba Métis Federation, Inc.
701-310 Broadway Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba R3C 0S6
Phone 942-0926

Native Education Branch
Manitoba Department of Education
408-1181 Portage Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba R3G 0T3
Phone 944-7886

- Director
- Native Awareness Consultants
- Native Language Consultants
- English Language Development Consultant
- Native Studies Consultant
- Career/Guidance Consultant

Tribal Council Education Departments - Appendix B.3

Winnipeg School Division No. 1
7-270 Flora Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba R2W 2P9
Phone 586-9631
Contact Person: Native Education Consultant

ADMINISTRATIVE HANDBOOK: 83.08.31

Sections of the Manitoba Department of Education Handbook included for your information are:

3.04	Culture and Language
7.07	Student Initiated Projects
7.08	School Initiated Courses
9.02	Student Initiated Projects
9.03	School Initiated Courses
9.06	Mature Students
9.09	Request for Out-of-Province Appraisals
9.10	Special Language Credits
9.11	General Education Development Tests
9.12	Manitoba Government Bursaries and Canada Student Loans.

3.04 CULTURE AND LANGUAGE

The broad goals of public education stress the development needs of students. Multicultural education is the process of making education more responsive to the cultural and linguistic diversity that characterizes our society. Its place within a core curriculum acknowledges the need to prepare all students to live in a multicultural society. Integral to the school program in its entirety, therefore, are objectives that seek to recognize and understand the many forms that culture takes, to assist students to develop and retain a personal identity through an awareness of their own cultural and historical heritages, and to develop an understanding of and respect for the cultural and historical heritages of others. Integral also is the provision of opportunities under the law and through the school curriculum to provide instruction in both the French and English languages, being the official languages recognized under the British North American Act, and in heritage languages, and to provide for the study of second languages by offering language options, in various forms, as part of the school program.

7.07 Student Initiated Projects

Students may initiate their own courses in areas of special interest not provided for in the regular high school program (See Section 9.01). Up to three Student Initiated Project credits may be included among the elective courses. These credits should be entered on the student's transcript using the X05 notation and the title of the project, written in not more than forty (40) characters.

7.08 School Initiated Courses

The professional staff of a school division may develop courses for students in their school. Such courses are approved for local use only and should be developed within parameters established by the Department of Education (see Section 9.02 of this handbook). These credits should be entered on the student's transcript using the X05 notation and the title of the courses, written in not more than forty (40) characters.

9.02 STUDENT INITIATED PROJECTS

Contact Person: K. Charlesworth
409 - 1181 Portage Avenue,
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3G 0T3
Phone: 944-7968
Toll Free WATS Line: 1-800-262-8848 ext. 7968

Student initiated projects provide a means whereby students may initiate their own courses in areas of special interest not provided for in the regular high school program. Such projects must be initiated by the students themselves. Credit will be granted for activity or process and growth therefrom, not for competence already possessed.

The following guidelines will apply:

1. The introduction of student initiated projects is the responsibility of local school divisions.

2. A student may earn up to three student initiated project credits among the minimum of twenty credits required for graduation from high school.

3. A student initiated project may involve students in activities quite different from those in a regular course although the amount of work, time and expectations regarding excellence should be equal to that involved in granting credit for any course. Students must complete 110-120 hours of work to earn one credit. On this basis, a project requiring 55-60 hours of work could be considered a half credit.

4. A student initiated project should be put in the form of a written agreement between the student, teacher advisor, principal, the person responsible for any out-of-school learning situation and the student's parents. This agreement should include: goals of project, activities to be completed, procedures to be followed, resources needed, and evaluation procedures.

5. Student initiated projects must not be equated either with the regular extra-curricular activities of the school or with the regular activities of organized community groups.

6. Students will receive no remuneration for a student initiated project for credit.

7. A copy of each student initiated project approved by the school should be forwarded to the Department of Education at the above address.

9.03 SCHOOL INITIATED COURSES

Contact Person: K. Charlesworth
409 - 1181 Portage Avenue,
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3G 0T3
Phone: 944-7968
Toll Free WATS Line: 1-800-262-8848 ext. 7968

Teachers may develop courses for use within the classrooms of their own schools. These courses should respond to identified local student needs. General information about school initiated courses and assistance in the planning, development and review of school initiated courses are available by contacting the Revised High School Program office at the address above.

Responsibility for the quality and appropriateness of a course to the program, and level at which it will be offered to students rests with teachers, superintendents and trustees of the school division in which the course will be used. Department of Education approval of School Initiated Courses is no longer required. **A detailed course plan for each newly developed course must be filed with the Department of Education.**

A suggested format for a School Initiated Course plan is shown below:

A) **Rationale**

This section should describe the need for and reasons for offering the course.

B) **Aims and Objectives**

In this section, the anticipated outcomes of teaching the course should be described explicitly so that they will correspond with the evaluation techniques described below.

C) **Content or Vehicle**

This section should contain a topical outline and an indication of the time to be allocated to each topic. The time allocation will indicate the areas of emphasis.

An expanded and descriptive version of the outline should be written to support the outline.

D) **Evaluation Procedures and Techniques**

1. **Student Performance**

This section should provide information on the techniques to be used in evaluating student performance for the purpose of granting or not granting a credit for the course.

2. **Evaluation of the Course**

This section should be an evaluation, by the teacher, of the school initiated course itself. These evaluations should be submitted to the principal of the school within 60 days after the completion of the course. The aims and objectives listed in Section B (above) should be referred to in this evaluation. The assessment procedures that were followed in order to determine whether the aims and objectives had been met should be outlined as well. This final evaluation is explained here because the teacher should keep it in mind while developing the course proposal.

9.06 MATURE STUDENTS

Contact Person: Mr. Léo Blanchette
312 - 1181 Portage Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3G 0T3
Phone: 944-7944
Toll Free WATS Line: 1-800-262-8848 ext 7944

9.06.01 Definition of a mature student

A "mature student", eligible for special privileges for the purpose of completing high school graduation requirements is, under normal circumstances:

a) Person nineteen (19) years of age or over enrolling in an institution, or who will reach the age of nineteen before completion of the course(s) in which he is enrolling and,

b) Has been out of school a full year or more and out of school long enough for the class of which he/she was last a member to have graduated from high school.

9.06.02 Requirements for graduation (completion of high school standing):

Under the present policy, no person may obtain Manitoba high school standing on a retroactive basis.

A minimum requirement, for completion of high school standing for a mature student, would be a total of six (6) credits to be distributed as follows:

(i) a person must enrol in an institution

(ii) four (4) credits to be at the Third Year '3XY' level including either English 300 or English 301

N.B. The English requirement at the '3XY' level may be waived for persons wishing to achieve high school standing in either Business Education or Vocational-Industrial Education. The four credits at the '3XY' level, for these persons, must be selected amongst approved Business Education and Vocational-Industrial Education courses, respectively, covering four different subject areas.

(iii) standing in the two (2) remaining credits to be granted, at the discretion of the school principal, either:

(a) on the basis of previous work successfully completed at the senior high level,

N.B. Persons having four (4) credits at the '3XY' level upon undertaking to obtain Manitoba high school standing, may not be granted two (2) credits on the basis of previous work successfully completed at the senior high level.

OR (b) upon completion of approved courses in the high school program, inclusive of school initiated courses and student initiated projects.

(iv) Special cases should be discussed between the school principal and the Registrar, Teacher Certification and Records Office.

9.09 REQUESTS FOR OUT-OF-PROVINCE APPRAISALS

Contact Person: Mr. Léo Blanchette
312 - 1181 Portage Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3G 0T3
Phone: 944-7944
Toll Free WATS Line: 1-800-262-8848 ext 7944

Students entering Manitoba schools from outside the province should have their standing appraised first by the school to which they wish to gain admission. Should difficulty in appraising certain documents be encountered by school officials, the Registrar of the Teacher Certification and Records Office will provide assistance only upon request from the school. Kindly ensure that documents forwarded to the Director for evaluation are duly translated in one of Canada's two official languages.

Schools granting standing at the first, second, or third year level for work completed outside the province, should complete the **Student Achievement - Out-of-Province Appraisals Form** E-e-30 designed for this purpose and available through the Teacher Certification and Records Office.

School principals may wish to consult the following reference to assist them with out-of-province appraisals:

GUIDELINES FOR THE APPRAISAL OF OUT-OF-PROVINCE ACADEMIC CREDENTIALS
by Dr. R.F. Constant

9.10 SPECIAL LANGUAGE CREDITS

Contact Person: Mr. Léo Blanchette
312 - 1181 Portage Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3G 0T3
Phone: 944-7944
Toll Free WATS Line: 1-800-262-8848 ext 7944

Manitoba high school students may claim special credit for languages not included in the regular high school program, in accordance with the following guidelines:

(a) One credit for **one language only** may be granted at each level by the school (maximum of 3.0 credits).

(b) Only students enrolled in a regular high school program, adult or evening high school classes are eligible for special language credits.

(c) Departmental approval is required at the third year level (305).

(d) If a language is not taught in any kind of school setting, certification of competence may be accepted from qualified persons judging competency for the third year credit, subject to Departmental approval.

(e) The Special Language Credits Policy is not applicable in the case of the following languages:

English	German	Latin
Anglais	Hebrew	Spanish
Français	Italian	Ukrainian
French		

(f) Departmental approval in (c) and (d) above refers to approval by the Teacher Certification and Records Office, 312-1181 Portage Avenue, Winnipeg.

Where credit for a language is granted more than once, it should be granted only as a result of further study or improvement. Equal credit will, however, be given for equal competency, regardless of the level at which a student is enrolled. Thus, if third year standing is granted to a first year level student because he is equally competent in the language, standing will automatically be granted for the language at the first and second year levels.

Deadline dates for all application forms: April 30.

9.11 GENERAL EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT TESTS

Contact Person: Mr. Carol Mauthe
528 St. James Street
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3G 0T3
Phone: 944-7617
Toll Free WATS Line: 1-800-782-0317 ext 7617

The GED Testing Program consists of a battery of five tests designed to measure the intellectual skills, ideas and learning skills a candidate may have acquired since leaving high school. Candidates are exposed to a series of five comprehensive examinations in the areas of Writing Skills, Social Studies, Science, Reading Skills and Mathematics and are designed to help determine the particular high school level of education attained.

Eligibility requirements

(a) minimum age: nineteen (19) years of age

(b) residency: candidates must have been residents of Manitoba for at least the last six (6) months prior to application to write the tests.

(c) candidates must have been out of school at least one (1) full academic year and out of school long enough for the class of which they were last a member to have graduated from high school.

(d) candidates must submit an approved application form together with a ten ($10.00) dollar registration fee.

Application Procedure

Application forms are available at all Community Colleges, at Canada Employment Centres, as well as most test centres (Dauphin Collegiate, Dauphin; R.D. Parker Collegiate, Thompson; Garden Valley Collegiate, Winkler; Glenlawn Collegiate, Winnipeg; Miles MacDonell Collegiate, Winnipeg; Portage Collegiate, Portage la Prairie; Stony Mountain Penitentiary, Stony Mountain; Headingley Correctional Institute, Headingley) or from the GED Testing Service, Department of Education.

9.12 MANITOBA GOVERNMENT BURSARIES AND CANADA STUDENT LOANS

Contact Person: Mrs. W. Hosfield
Information Officer
Student Aid Branch
Department of Education
693 Taylor Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba
From Winnipeg: 452-3100
Toll Free WATS Line: 1-800-262-8802

The Manitoba Student Aid Program provides financial assistance to Manitoba residents in the form of Manitoba Government Bursaries or Canada Student Loans or both. Most programs are need-assessed. The bursaries are not repayable and the loans must be paid within 10 years after the student finishes school. Application forms are available from the Student Aid Branch and from the Awards Office, guidance counsellor or principal at most schools.

There are 6 main program areas:

9.12.01 Secondary School Bursary Program

Bursaries are available to students in full-time attendance in Grades 9-12 at public high schools in Manitoba. Awards are usually $275.00 if living at home, and $550.00 if the student does not live in the parental home. In exceptional cases, a self-supporting student who is under 18 years of age may receive up to $900.00 if recommended by a school official. High school students are not eligible for Canada Student Loan assistance.

9.12.02 Post Secondary Bursary and Loan Program

Financial assistance is also available for all levels of post secondary education including University Undergraduate, Post Graduate, Mature Student, Community College, Hospital Schools of Nursing, and some Private Trade Schools. Awards of less than $1,000 are Canada Student Loan only.

Canada Student Loans may be awarded to students attending approved institutions in Canada or abroad, Manitoba Government Bursaries are available to post-secondary students studying in Manitoba. Students whose study program is not available in Manitoba may receive a Manitoba Government Bursary to study elsewhere in Canada. Graduate students may receive bursary assistance to study at any approved institution in Canada or abroad.

The maximum award possible is determined by the length of the student's academic year. Most eight month university programs qualify for awards of up to $4,720 ($1,860 Canada Student Loan and $3,860 Manitoba Government Bursary). Ten month community college programs usually qualify for awards of up to $5,740 ($2,370 Canada Student Loan and $3,370 Manitoba Government Bursary). An additional grant of $1,000 is available to university and community college students who demonstrate a high need.

Full-time programs of 12 weeks or more including summer school are eligible for up to $900 in loan and $1,400 in bursary.

Students in post-secondary education may receive awards in two ways.

1) **Loans** - are made available through the Federal Government's Canada Student Loans Plan. Loans are interest-free while in attendance in a designated institute and for six months afterwards.

2) **Bursaries** - are provided by the Government of Manitoba and do not have to be repaid.

   a) **Loan rebate**

      A loan rebate is that portion of a Canada Student Loan which is guaranteed to be repaid by the Government of Manitoba at the time the student must begin repayment of the Canada Student Loan.

   b) **Regular Bursaries**

      Regular bursaries are given to post-secondary students whose needs exceed the assessed Canada Student Loan maximum. These bursaries are usually paid in one sum at the beginning of the second term. Students eligible for large bursary awards may receive a payment of $500 in the first half of their school year.

9.12.03 Special Opportunity Bursary Program

Special Opportunity Bursaries have been established to encourage and promote study and practice in Manitoba. Most of these awards are repayable by service in Manitoba and are available to the following:

b) Disabled Students -- Special Opportunity Handicapped Bursaries are available to secondary and post-secondary students and are designed to provide support for the extra services that handicapped students require.

9.12.04 Special Opportunity Native Bursaries

In addition to regular student assistance, Special Opportunity Bursaries are available to Native students. These bursaries are awarded annually as an incentive to students who have demonstrated financial need. Under the special bursary program Native students are eligible for consideration for:

Secondary

Special Opportunity Bursaries - $100.
Métis/Non Status Indian
Native - (Registered Canadian Indians) - living permanently off the reserve, and not in receipt of assistance from the Government of Canada.

Post-Secondary

Prince of Wales/Princess Anne Bursaries - $200 - $2,000
Métis/Non-Status Indians
Prince of Wales/Princess Anne Bursaries - $200
Registered Canadian Indians
Administered by the Student Aid Branch. Status Indians are eligible for Canada Student Loan assistance only in addition to the Prince of Wales/Princess Anne Award.

Post-secondary education assistance is available from the Department of Indian Affairs for any Registered Canadian Indian students.

Native students who qualify for regular assistance will, in most instances, also be eligible for the Special Native Bursaries.

9.12.05 Program of Cooperation for Bilingualism

Transferred to the Bureau de l'Education Française effective April 1, 1976.

9.12.06 Summer Language Bursary Program

Transferred to the Bureau de l'Education Française effective April 1, 1976.

9.12.07 Deadlines for Application

The bursary deadline date for all types of university students is June 30th. For students in a Community College, Hospital School of Nursing or Paramedical Training, the deadline is 60 days after the 1st day of the 1st month of the start of the period of studies. Applications received after the deadline date from post secondary students will receive consideration for Canada Student Loan only. A reduced amount of financial assistance may be made available if the application is submitted after the deadline. For students in high school, grades 9-12, the deadline date is September 30th.

APPENDIX D

RESOURCES

1. Bibliographies

1.1 Immigrant Education and ESL

A bibliography of ESL and Immigrant Education materials available from the Manitoba Department of Education. Approximately 800 titles listed.

1.2 Native Education

Native Peoples: Department of Education resources pertaining to Indians, Inuit, and Métis. 1982. Available from the Native Education Branch, Manitoba Department of Education.

1.3 Multicultural Education

The journal Multiculturalism, (Guidance Centre, 252 Bloor Street West, Toronto.) beginning with 1977 issue has published numerous topical and annotated bibliographies.

2. Journals

Canadian Journal of Linguistics, English Department, Queens University, Kingston, Ontario K7L 3N6

Canadian Journal of Native Education, Department of Educational Foundations, 5-109 Education North, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta T6G 2G5

Canadian Modern Language Review, 4 Oakmount Road, Welland, Ontario, L3C 4X8

English Education, National Council of Teachers of English, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, IL, 61801.

English Journal, National Council of Teachers of English, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, IL, 61801.

English Language Teaching Journal, Oxford University Press, Walton St., Oxford, England

English Language Teaching - Subscription Department, Oxford University Press, Press Road, Neasden, London N. W10, England.

English Quarterly, Canadian Council of Teachers of English, 2417-25th Avenue, Regina, Saskatchewan S4S 4E7.

Eric Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Centre for Applied Linguistics, 3520 Prospect Street, N.W., Washington D.C. 20007

ESL Newsletter, TESL Manitoba, Manitoba Teachers' Society, 191 Harcourt St., Winnipeg R3J 3H2.

Journal of American Indian Education, Center for Indian Education, College of Education, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona 85287

Language Arts - NCTE, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois, 61801.

Language Learning, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109

Language Talk, Department of Education, Yellowknife, Northwest Territories.

Manitoba Modern Language Bulletin, Manitoba Teachers' Society, 191 Harcourt St., Winnipeg R3J 3H2.

Modern Language Journal, Department of Foreign Languages, University of Nebraska, Omaha, Nebraska 68101

Multiculturalism, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Guidance Centre, 252 Bloor Street West, Toronto, Ont. M5S 2Y3.

Networks, TESL Canada Language Development in Native Education Special Interest Group. Editor, 408 - 1181 Portage Avenue, Winnipeg, Manitoba R3G 0T3

Reading Teacher - I.R.A., 800 Barksdale Road, P.O. Box 8139, Newark, Delaware, 19711.

TESOL Quarterly - TESOL, Georgetown University, 455 Nevils Boulevard, Washington, D.C., 20057.

TESL Talk - Ontario Citizenship Branch, 24th Floor, 400 University Avenue, Toronto, Ontario M5G 1S5

The Modern Language Journal, University of Wisconsin Press, 114 North Murray Street, Madison W 153715

3. ESL Program Resources

Numbers indicate Department of Education Library catalogue call numbers.

3.1 ESL 105 Level 1

Department of Education Library (Catalogue # indicated)

428.24 157 — An Introduction to Canadian English: Student's Workbook, Ontario Ministry of Culture and Recreation, Citizenship Branch

428.24 C67 — New English Course, Book 1-6, English Language Services, Inc., 1979 Dist: Dominie Press

428.2407 E53c — English as a Second Language/Dialect: Curriculum Guide for the Intermediate and Senior Divisions, Ontario Ministry of Education, 1977

372.6521 H47 — Summer English Language Program for Juniors: A Curriculum Guide, Vancouver Community College, 1978

428.24 M44 New Horizons in English, Book 1-6, Student text and workbook, Addison-Wesley, 1980

428.34 054 K Kernel One, Student Book, Longman, 1978

428.2407 E53 C.2 English as a Second Language/Dialect Resource Book for K-12, Ministry of Education, Province of British Columbia, 1981

What's The Story, Book 1 & 2, Longman. Dist: Academic Press.

3.2 ESL 205

Elementary curriculum materials may be used to introduce students to the language of selected topics found on the high school curriculum.

428.24 L65 Longman Structural Readers, Longman.

428.24 K53 Klassen, Bernie. Building Sentences for Oral & Written Communication, Manitoba Department of Education, 1977. Dist: Man. Textbook Bureau.

428.24 H55 Hines, Mary. Skits in English, Regents, 1980 Dist: Dominie Press.

English as a Second Language/Dialect: Secondary School Guidelines and Programs. Toronto Board of Education, 1979.

428.2407 T67	Program Overview, Curriculum Design & Evaluation
428.2407 T67A	Reception Program
428.2407 T67C	Advanced Program
428.2407 T67B	Transition Program
428.34 J34	Listening In & Speaking Out, Longman

3.3 LPE Transition Courses

Upper elementary, junior high, and skill building content area materials may be used to introduce students to selected topics found on the High School Curriculum.

428.2076 The Writing Skills TEST: Preparation for the High School Equivalency Exam. Cambridge Book Co.

428.24 B64 Bolitho, A.R., Learn English for Science I, Longman, 1977

Bolitho, A.R., Study English for Science, Longman.

Focus on Life Science, Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., a science series.

Individual Science Instructional System, Ginn & Co., a science series.

McKay, Sandra. Writing for a Specific Purpose, Prentice Hall, 1980.

428.24 F44 — Felder, Mira, Light & Lively, Harcourt Brace Jonanovitch, Inc. 1979, a reader

Rampaul, Yvette, Idioms in Context. Dist: Manitoba Textbook Bureau.

428.24 P73 — Praninskas, Jean. Rapid Review of English Grammar. Prentice Hall, 1975.

Longman Structural Readers, Longman
Oliver Twist
Treasure Island

Living in Canada: A Guide for New Immigrants Employment and Immigration Canada.

Forsey, Eugene, How Canadians Govern Themselves, Government of Canada, Supply and Services.

Kahn, Charles, Government and You, McClelland and Stewart, 1979

Doughty, Howard, Canadian Studies, Wiley Publishers 1976

Wood, Dean, The People We Are, Gage Publishing, 1980.

Canada & The World. Maclean Hunter, Published monthly September - May. Class subscriptions available.

4. **Program Resources for Native Students**

Living In The City, An Urban Orientation Resource Manual, Volume I and II by Laura R. Barber. Available from the Department of Indian Affairs or the Native Education Branch, Manitoba Department of Education.

Manitoba: Location Of Indian Band Communities. Available from The Department of Mines, Resources and Environmental Management, Surveys, Mapping and Lands Branch.

K
971.270049
N38 — Native People and Their Careers - (Gr. 7-10)
In this kit you will meet six Native people, and see and hear about their careers. 1. nurse, 2. hockey player, 3. member of parliament, 4. teacher, 5. secretary, 6. airport manager.
3 filmstrips, 3 audio cassettes, 1 teacher manual.

K
971.270049
N38a — Native People and Their Careers II - (Gr. 7-10)
In this filmstrip you will meet four Native people, and see and hear about their careers: beautician, pilot, teacher's aide, social worker.
4 filmstrips, 4 audio cassettes.

K
971.270049
N38j — Native People and Their Careers III - (Gr. 9-12)
Three Native people discuss their careers: lawyer, medical student, journalist.
3 filmstrips, 3 audio cassettes, 1 teacher manual.

New Student in the City, Media Productions, Manitoba Department of Education, 1984. A 30 minute video tape available from the Manitoba Department of Education Library.

"Plan Now for Your Future" posters may be ordered from: The Manitoba Textbook Bureau, 277 Hutchings Street, Winnipeg, Manitoba R2X 2R4
Order No. 77601
Price: $6.25 per set of 4.

K 970.41 T38 — Tawow: A Multi-Media Native Studies Kit. Bruce Sealey et al. Agincourt: Book Society of Canada, 1975. Available from the Manitoba Department of Education library.

5. Cooperative Learning

This teaching method has been developed and researched for over ten years by two brothers, Drs. David and Roger Johnson of the University of Minnesota. If you would like more general information articles, research studies, sample lesson plans, or films to view (Belonging and It's Worth It), please feel free to contact the address or number below.

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